GAZETTEER OF INDIA

ORISSA

SAMBALPUR

ORISSA DISTRICT GAZETTEERS

SAMBALPUR

BY

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PREFACE

The first Gazetteer of Sambalpur district was written by O' Malley in 1909. It was revised by King in 1932. The district then covered the areas now occupied by the subdivisions of Sambalpur[1], Bargarh, and Padampur. The present Gazetteer covers the old district and the three new subdivisions of Deogarh, Kuchinda, and Rairakhol which accreted to Sambalpur district in 1948 in consequence of the operation of surrender of Ruling power by Princes which has been called in the text "Merger of States" or "Integration of States". Cobden-Ramsay had written the Gazetteer of the 26 Feudatory States of Orissa in 1907. It included the states of Bamra and Rairakhol which are now the subdivisions of Deogarh, Kuchinda, and Rairakhol. In the present Gazetteer, full use has been made of the work of O' Malley, King, and Cobden-Ramsay. They have been extensively quoted to compare the vastly changed conditions in the present day.

Geologist Ball, Archaeologists Beglar and Jayaswal, Motte-the traveller and Settlement Officers Dewar, Nethersole and Hamid have been quoted. Extensive quotations have been taken from the autobiography of Senapati (Chief Editor of this volume) which gives a contemporary account of conditions prevailing between 1930 and 1934 when he was Deputy Commissioner of the district.

Vast changes have taken place during the last two decades. A visitor to Sambalpur today would feel like Rip Van Winkle waking up after long years of sleep. A huge lake, large areas criss-crossed with canals, corn swaying in the fields in summer indeed a Green Revolution, electric and telephone wires covering the sky, H. T. Electric towers, looking like huge skeletons standing in fields and forests to carry electric power, are all signs of a new look. Growth of heavy and light industries in and around Sambalpur, Jharsuguda, and Bargarh has transformed the pastoral countryside into centres humming with activity and concentration of people both from within and out side the district. Life in rural areas is also very different. *Zamindars*, *Gauntias*, and *Chaukidars* are no longer there. Gone also are *Deraghars* and *Dharsas*. One who knew Sambalpur of old may view these with nostalgia. All today and in future will regret the rapid disappearance of wild life. The majestic tiger, the cunning leopard and pretty spotted deer are nearing extinction. Gone also is lac, the resin of a wild insect. *Tassar*, the strongest of all textiles, has so deteriorated that people prefer synthetic fibres. You no longer see cocoons being sold in village markets. Where you could see hundreds of bullock carts moving leisurely on dust roads, you now find Diesel trucks racing on black topped roads

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(1) Excluding 61 villages of Padampur (Mahadeopali) PS —vide p. 4.

polluting the atmosphere by the masses of smoke emitted by their exhausts. The *Dhenki* which used to pound rice is no longer seen or heard. It has been replaced by rice-hullers and giant rice mills. The old way of life is gone for ever *.

In compiling this volume, we have received the assistance of many. We first mention the Casey sisters, Miss Peggy Casey, Miss Madge Casey and Mrs. Clare Morris who presented us the weather record kept at their father's Sisal Hemp Estate at Nildungri for 37 years.

The glossary has been added to explain many Oriya words used in the text and the Index has been split into two parts—general and place names, the object being to open up research into their meaning. It may have important bearing on history and geography of the country. The spelling of place names in the Map and in the text has followed the maps published by the Survey of India which some times differs from the local spelling.

The map at the end is in scale 1 : 12,50,000 (or 1 cm : 12½ Km). A more detailed map could not be printed on account of restriction imposed by the Government of India. The more detailed maps have been given in similar scales on particular subject to which they refer such as canals, roads and forest roads, mineral and geology, etc.

An omission in this volume is a picture of Veer Surendra Sai Although pictures of him have appeared at other places we could not get an authentic original. As photography was not known at the time a picture could only have been either a painting or drawing. No such original with its authorship has been found.

For brevity, abbreviations have been used in the text. "Community Development" referred to as "C. D." was introduced in different stages, namely Stage I, Stage II and Post-Stage II. A Stage I C. D. Block is one for which a schematic allotment of Rs. 12 lakhs is made for development work to be done within a minimum period of 5 years. Similarly, Stage II Block has a schematic allotment of Rs. 5 lakhs. A Post-Stage II Block succeeds a Stage II Block and it has no specific allotment of funds.

There are many references in the text to Five Year Plans. The periods covered by the Plans are :—

1st Five-Year Plan	..	April 1951 to March 1956
2nd Five-Year Plan	..	April 1956 to March 1961
3rd Five-Year Plan	..	April 1961 to March 1966

After three years of annual plans, the Fourth-Five Year Plan started in April, 1969.

* Vide Chapter IX.

The Gazetteer was compiled in the Gazetteers Section of the Revenue Department and placed before the Advisory Committee which consisted of—

1. Chief Minister	..	Chairman
2. Minister, Revenue	..	Member
3. Deputy Minister, Revenue	..	Member
4. Chief Secretary	..	Member
5. Member, Board of Revenue	..	Member
6. Secretary, Revenue	..	Member
7. Dr. Pranakrushna Parija, Padmabhusan.		Member
8. Chief Editor, Gazetteers	..	Member-Secretary

It was sent to the Government of India and their comments considered. We will be failing in our duty, if we do not express our thanks to Dr. P. N. Chopra, M. A., Ph. D., Editor, District Gazetteers and the staff of the Central Gazetteers Unit, Ministry of Education and Youth Services, New Delhi for their effective role in planning and co-ordinating the work of preparation of the District Gazetteers The unit scrutinized the draft of this volume with great care and made several helpful suggestions with a view to improving the standard and quality of the publication. It may also be mentioned here that a portion of the expenditure incurred on the publication and printing of the District Gazetteers is being met by the Government of India.

We have had ungrudging assistance of local officers of Ministries of Communications, Railways, and Finance; and all Departments of the State Government of Orissa and their local officers whom we had occasions to approach. We are particularly thankful to the Deputy Director. Map Publication for printing the maps, and to Dr. Banshidhar Prusti, Director of Mines, Shri Bijoy Krishna Mohanty Deputy Director of Mines, Shri Brundaban Misra, Joint Director of Agriculture and Dr. Bidyadhar Padhi, Professor of Botany, Utkal University for their valuable assistance. Chapter II on History has been drafted by Dr. Kishori Mohan Patra, Reader in History, Utkal University.

The following staff of the Gazetteers Section have worked ungrudgingly to complete the task and to go through the tedious and tiring work of proof reading—Shri Jamini Kanta Jagdev Research Officer, Shri Mahendra Chandra Das. Officer on Special Duty Compilers Shri Amulya Kumar Satpathy, Shri Basanta Kumar Das, Shri Gour Prasad Patnaik and Shri Prafulla Behera; Assistants

Shri Pranakrushna Satpathi and Shri Sarat Chandra Mahapatra; Stenographers Shri Pratap Kumar Ray and Shri Nrusimha Charan Satpathi; and Typists Shri Satyananda Mohapatra, Shri Durga Charan Mahapatra, Shri Braja Kishore Parida and Shri Akshaya Kumar Barik. In spite of several proof readings, the final printed copy has a large number of mistakes, for which the indulgence of the reader is invited.

Thanks are also due to Dr. Nabin Kumar Sahu who did considerable spade work before the chapter on History could be compiled and collected some materials for Chapter XIX.

Finally, we acknowledge the valuable work of the Orissa Government Press, of the Superintendent and of his staff who have worked hard to keep to the time schedule.

Republic Day. 1971

NILAMANI SENAPATI

BHABAKRUSHNA MAHANTI

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CHAPTER I

GENERAL

1. Introducing the District

Sambalpur saw the dawn of civilisation. Long before the introduction of any regular script in India, ancient man has left at Vikramkhol on the wall of a cave pictograph writing still undeciphered.

After a long gap of many thousand years, Sambalpur then called Sambhal, again led the world by founding Vajrayan Buddhism propounded by its King Indrabhuti in the 8th century A. D. He was one of the 84 traditional Siddhas of India[1].

This district was long under Gond and Binjhal chiefs before historical dynasties like Gangas, Kadambas and Chauhans appeared and became masters of different regions. The Chauhans, a branch of the Patna house, were the most powerful and ruled over a cluster of 18 States in western Orissa and the eastern parts of Madhya Pradesh. The Chauhan rule crumbled by the onslaught of British imperialism. Surendra Sai, a scion of the dynasty, led the people of the district against the British at the time of the famous Indian Mutiny of 1857 and continued the struggle long after the Mutiny had collapsed in the rest of India.

The district has thick and inaccessible forests and a large variety of wild life from elephants to rabbits. One of its waterfalls, though sung by poets and princesses, has, for over half a century, been put to the prosaic use of generating hydroelectric power.

The cultivated plains yield numerous varieties of paddy some of which are the finest in India. Irrigation provided by the Hirakud canals in Sambalpur and Bargarh subdivisions had caused a "green revolution". Land which was dusty brown previously now looks flush green even in April. Sambalpur had the tradition of producing diamond which was being extracted from the sands of the Mahanadi at Hirakud—which means the diamond island.

The district is noted for "tie and dye" weaving in cotton and tassar silk bringing out most artistic designs from the loom almost like magic with the help of formulae which have passed down from father to son for generations. The people have evolved their own romantic dialect known as Sambalpuri Oriya which is prevalent in all the districts of western Orissa.

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1. For a discussion of this claim *see* chapter II

Achievement of the district in modern times is the Hirakud Dam across the Mahanadi, having a water spread of 777 square kilometres and having 21 kilometres of earthen dyke, the longest in the world.

People living in 3,736 villages are simple, law-abiding and God-fearing. They are hospitable and artistic. Their songs are poetic and full of pathos. Having lived with nature for centuries, their culture has merged in nature.

2. Origin of the name of the district

The district of Sambalpur has been named after the headquaters town Sambalpur. According to O' Malley, the town itself derives its name from the presiding goddess Samalai whose image was found by Balaram Dev, the first Chauhan Raja of Sambalpur, beneath a Simul (silk-cotton) tree. Regarding the origin of the name of Sambalpur town, O' Malley narrates the follwing episode;

"One day while hunting, he (Balaram Dev) crossed the river, and set his hounds at a hare, only to find after a long chase that they had been repulsed by it. Struck by this extraordinary exhibition of courage by the most timid of animals, he concluded that there must be some supernatural virtue in the land. He, therefore, determined to make his capital there, and having built a town, installed in it the tutelary goddess of his family. The place where her image was set up was an island (Kud) on which stood a silk-cotton tree, and hence was called Semal-kud, while the goddess was given the name of Samalai. Local tradition asserts that the place where the Raja's dogs were repulsed by the hare is a spot, known as Badiraj, in front of the old city police-station near the Balibandha tank, and that the old town founded by Balaram Deva was between the city police-station and Samalai Devi's temple." [1]

The town of Sambalpur is known to be much older than the time of Balaram Dev who became the ruler of Sambalpur kingdom about the middle of the 16th century A. D. The Greek Geographer Ptolemy (middle of the 2nd Century A. D.) in his book Geographike refers to a town named Sambalaka situated on the bank of the Manada. Sambalaka and Manada may perhaps be indentified with modern Sambalpur and the river Mahanadi, respectively. In medieval Tibetan literature, we find description of the territory of Sambhal in Uddiyana. We gather

1. L. S. S. O' Malley, Bengal District Gazetteers, Sambalpur (1909) P. 217. Identical stories prevail about origins of other places like Cuttack and Baripada where egrets take the place of the hare and hawks take the place of hounds.

from the *Bstanhgyur* Catalogue that Indrabhuti, the propounder of Vajrayana Buddhism, was the Raja of Sambhal in Uddiyana. This Sambhal is probably no other than modern Sambalpur[1]. The suffix 'pur' was later added to the original name Sambhal when the territory came under the rule of the Chauhans. The French traveller Tavernier, writing about the middle of the 17th century A. D., referred to "Sumelpur" as a region rich in diamonds obtained from the most ancient mines. The historian Edward Gibbon (1737—1794) in his " Decline and Fall of Roman Empire" states that Rome was being supplied with diamonds from the mines of "Sumelpur" in Bengal. "Sumelpur" in Bengal is no other than the present Sambalpur of Orissa. The presiding goddess Samalai is probably named after the terrirtory of Sambhal.

3. Location, general boundaries, total area and population of the district

The district of Sambalpur lies between 20°43'N and 22°11'N latitudes and 82°39'E and 85°13'E longitudes.

It is one of the western-most districts of the State of Orissa and is roughly triangular in shape. It is bounded on the north by the district of Sundargarh and on the east by the district of Dhenkanal, on the south lies the district of Balangir and on the west the district of Kalahandi while along its north-western and western boundaries lie the districts of Raigarh and Raipur of Madhya Pradesh.

The district has an area of 6,764·6 square miles or 17,520·3 Sq. Km. (6,763 square miles according to Surveyor-General of India). According to the Census of 1961, the district had a population of 1,508,686 out of which 756,163 were males and 752,523 females. In order of size and population it holds the second and the fourth places, respectively among all the districts of Orissa.

4. History of the district as an administrative unit and the changes in its component parts.

In this regard, we get the following account from King's* Gazetteer: "Few districts have been affected by so many administrative changes as Sambalpur. After the cession by the Marathas in 1817, though the direct rule rested with the Raja, a general power of control was reserved for the British authorities, and soon after the accession of the last Raja (1833) the State was placed under the Agent of the Governor-General for the South-West Frontier. This Agency, it may be explained, was called into existence by Regulation XIII of 1833 after the supression of the Kolh Rebellion of 1831-32, and at first comprised the greater part of

1. This view is controverted by R. M. Nath, N. N. Das Gupta and Prof. M. Levy who locate it in Assam, Bengal and Wat valley of Kabul on the north-west of India vide M. Winternitz, History of Indian literature Vol. II, p. 400, Journal of Assam Research Society, Vol. VI, Nos. 1 and 2, 1937, pp. 14-57, Indian Historical Quarterly Vol. XI, p. 142 ff and Journal Asiatique 1915, p. 105 ff.

* Sambalpur District Gaztteer (1932)—By F. C. King.

what is now the Chotanagpur Division, but subsequently Sambalpur with other Tributary States, was added to it. In 1849, Sambalpur came under the direct rule of the British."

The Kingdom of Sambalpur which was under the rule of the Chauhan Kings lapsed to the East India Company in 1849 when the last Raja Narayan Singh died without any issue. It was then administered by the Principal Assistant of the Agent for the South-West Frontier, the latter having his headquarters at Ranchi. The designation of the Agent changed in 1854 to Commissioner of Chotanagpur and that of his Principal Assistant to Senior Assistant Commissioner. In 1860, Sambalpur was transferred to Orissa Division of Bengal but on the 30th April, 1862 it was made over to the newly constituted Central Provinces. In October 1905, the bulk of the district was retransferred to the Province of Bengal and was made a part of Orissa Divsion. On the 1st April, 1912, the Province of Bihar and Orissa was separately constituted. Orissa was made a separate Province on the 1st April 1936 when the Zamindari of Khariar, which was in the Raipur district of Central Provinces, was brought to Orissa and made a part of the district of Sambalpur. It constituted a new subdivision of the district, named, Nawapara subdivision. In that chain of readjustment of areas 61 villages (54 villages of Padampur Taluk and 7 Khalsa villages) with a population of 23,773 which were in Raigarh district of the Central Provinces were transferred to Sambalpur and included in the Sambalpur subdivision of the district. The total area of these villages was 5,099·14 acres and the police-station of Padampur which had jurisdiction over the villages was renamed as Mahadeopali police-station. After the construction of Hirakud Dam submerging many of the villages, a new police-station was started at Rengali (not Railway station Rengali) and the police-station at Mahadeopali was abolished. After merger of the States on the 1st January 1948 Bamra was amalgamated in the district of Sambalpur, being divided into two subdivisions, namely, Deogarh and Kuchinda; and another ex-State Rairakhol which was a subdivision in Dhenkanal after merger was transferred to Sambalpur on 26th October 1949. On the 1st November, 1949, Sambalpur lost Nawapara subdivision to the district of Kalahandi. A new subdivision, called Padampur subdivision, was formed on the 1st July 1969 taking out the areas of 7 police-stations from Bargarh subdivision.

Subdivisions and police-stations

The district is divided into six subdivisions, namely, Sambalpur, Bargarh, Rairakhol, Kuchinda, Padampur, and Deogarh. Sambalpur and Bargarh are the two old subdivisions of the district and are roughly separated by the Mahanadi river, although a few villages of Sambalpur subdivision lie on the west of the river.

The subdivision of Sambalpur has an area of 4382·3 square Km and its population, according to the Census of 1961, was 510,077 out of which 259,206 were males and 250,871 females. Out of the total population of the subdivision 416,916 persons live in villages numbering 738. There are five towns in the subdivision, namely, Sambalpur, Hirakud, Burla, Jharsuguda, and Brajarajnagar with a total population of 93,161.

The Bargarh subdivision has an area of 2689·1 square Km. and a total population of 356,350 and the headquarters Baragarh is the only town of the subdivision having a population of 15,375.

The subdivision of Deogarh has an area of 2703·9 square Km. with a population of 120,213 out of which 60,043 are males and 60,170 females. There are 620 villages with 113,374 persons, while Deogarh is the only town of the subdivision with a population of 6,839.

The subdivision of Kuchinda has an area of 2445 square Km. and it has a population of132,726 out of which 66,186 are males and 66,540 females. There is no township in the subdivision. The entire population inhabits 520 villages.

The Padampur subdivision has an area of 3142·5 square Km. and a population of 336,772 of which 167,150 are males and 169,622 are females.

The subdivision of Rairakhol has an area of 2157·5 square Km. having a population of 52,548 out of which 26,324 are males and 26,224 females. There is no town in the subdivision. The people live in 399 villages.

The following table shows the subdivision-wise police-stations of the district with area and population according to 1961 Census:

Name of the subdivision	Name of the police-station	Area Sq.Km.	Area Sq. mile	Population in 1961
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1. Sambalpur, (A. 1,692 square miles	1. Brajarajnagar ..	207·4	83·1	43,783
(4382·3 Sq. Km.)	2. Burla	194·5	75·1	32,546
P. 510,077	3. Dhama	352·2	136·0	39,338
	4. Hirakud ..	97·4	37·6	43,783
	5. Jharsuguda ..	240·6	92·9	12,264
	6. Jujomura ..	543·9	210·0	32,546
	7. Katarbaga ..	569·8	220·0	27,497
	8. Laikera ..	707·1	273·0	26,133
	9. Lakhanpur ..	642·1	247·9	39,338
	0. Rengali ..	342·1	132·1	33,677
	11. Sambalpur ..	158·8	61·3	54,651
	12. Sason ..	318·6	123·0	66,881

1 Squre mile=2·59 Square Kilometres.

Name of the subdivision	Name of the police-station	Area Sq. Km.	Area Sq. mile	Population in 1961
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
2. Bargarh (A. 1,038·3 Sq. miles (2689·1 Sq· Km.) P. 356,350	1. Ambabhona ..	579·6	223·8	37,318
	2. Attabira	613·6	236·9	63,982
	3. Bargarh ..	388·2	149·9	82,594
	4. Barpali ...	282·8	109·2	62,045
	5. Bhatli ..	450·9	174·1	52,769
	6. Bheran (Bheden)..	374·0	144·4	57,642
3. Deogarh, A. 1,044 Sq. miles (2703·9 Sq. Km.) P. 120,213	1. Barakot ...	751·1	290·0	31,970
	2. Deogarh	838·0	312·0	34,676
	3. Naikul	616·4	238·0	26,950
	4. Riamal (Portion-lying in Deogarh Subdivision)	528·4	204·0	26,617
4. Kuchinda, A. 944 Sq. miles (2445 Sq. Km.) P. 132,726	1. Gobindpur ...	373·0	144·0	28,900
	2. Jamunkira (Jamankira)	756·3	292·0	25,884
	3. Kuchinda ...	632·0	244·0	39,633
	4. Mahulpali	606·0	234·0	35,888
	5. Riamal (portion-lying in Kuchinda Sub-division)	77·7	30·0	2,421
5. Rairakhol, A. 833 Sq. miles (2157·5 Sq. Km.) P. 52,548	1. Charmal ...	481·7	186·0	12,847
	2. Naktideul	891·0	344·0	20,428
	3. Rairakhol	784·8	303·0	19,273
6. Padampur, A. 1,213·3 Sq. miles (3142·5 Sq. Km.) P. 336,772	1. Bijepur	325·8	125·8	57,544
	2. Gaisilat	313·4	121·0	39,085
	3. Jagdalpur	660·5	255·0	49,814
	4. Melchhamunda	309·0	119·3	36,969
	5. Padampur	527·3	203·6	55,849
	6. Paikmal	579·4	223·7	40,004
	7. Sohela	427·1	164·9	57,507

SOURCE: 1961 Census

5. Topography

(i) Natural Division

The district consists of a wide expanse of fairly open country fringed by forest-clad hills as well as a series of low hill ranges of extremely irregular shape. Sambalpur and Bargarh (including Padampur) Sub-divisions together broadly speaking form an undulating upland varying in elevation from 479 feet (146m.) to 750 feet (228·60m.) above sea-level excluding hills and table lands, the general slope of which is from north to south, but it is much broken up by rugged ranges of hills, and is traversed in all directions by drainage channels mostly leading from the hill ranges to the Mahanadi and its tributaries. Isolated hills rising abruptly from the plains and hill ranges are also common and a considerable area consists of ground cut up by ravines or broad sandy ridges.

The district may be divided into five natural divisions (1) Bargarh plain, (2) Borasambar, (3) Ambabhona and Lakhanpur, (4) Sambalpur subdivision, and (5) the hilly regions of Rairakhol, Deogarh, and Kuchinda subdivisions.

The Bargarh plain itself is divided into 3 natural divisions. The greater portion is an open plain of considerable fertility drained by the Danta and the Jira, the two tributaries of the Mahanadi. To the north of this plain runs the Barapahar range of hills and to the south-west lie the valley of river Ong (Ang). The Bargarh plain is not a flat alluvial tract but an expanse of undulating country sloping down from the Barapahar hills in the north, to the Mahanadi valley in the east. It contains a good portion of the cultivated land of the district and its undulating character affords excellent scope for irrigation reservoirs. The soil is a mixture of sand and gravel as well as of clay. It is a good light rice soil and unlike the more fertile black cotton soil it grows few weeds and does not harbour dangerous insect pests. This tract is nowhere bare of vegetation and the villages are found embowered with mango groves.

The Borasambar tract lies to the south-west of the Bargarh plain. It is bounded by high hills on the north and south and the intervening plain is drained by river Ong (Ang), the valley of which particularly in the eastern portion is best suited to agriculture. Its soil contains some river silt and is enriched by hill drainage.

The Ambabhona and Lakhanpur area is cut off from the rest of Bargarh subdivision by a long spur of the Barapahar hills running south-west for a distance of nearly 48 km. This hill forms a barrier to

communication with the rest of the subdivision. Only one motorable road, the Bargarh-Bhatli-Ambabhona Road crosses the hill ranges. In February 1967, a metre gauge railway line from Bargarh to the lime-stone quarry at Dungri has been opened which also crosses the ranges. Ambabhona is a fairly level tract sloping down from the hills to river Mahanadi and is under close cultivation. Lakhanpur is a wide valley surrounded by forest-clad hills and is also closely cultivated.

The Sambalpur subdivision does not contain any large plain like that of the Bargarh subdivision. The chief areas of cultivation lie along the banks of the Mahanadi, in the valley of the Ib river, in the valleys and glens of Garh-Loising and Jujomura ex-Zamindaris and in the flat but well wooded country to the east of Sambalpur-Jharsuguda Road. The Hirakud Dam has changed the face of this part of the district, as some of the most fertile tracts of this subdivision have been submerged and permanently lost to cultivation. Green rice fields have been converted into a vast expanse of water as far as the eye can reach.

Rairakhol, Deogarh, and Kuchinda subdivisions have no rich and pronounced plains like Bargarh and Sambalpur. They, however, contain valleys and plateaus unevenly distributed, which appear like patches of plain lands. The Rairakhol subdivision contains a series of low hill ranges extending towards the valley of the Mahanadi. Although there are high isolated lands, there are no regular uplands except towards the border of Deogarh subdivision in the north. The Deogarh subdivision is entirely a hilly tract. There are ranges of hills with extensive plateau lands and valleys which are suitable for cultivation. The subdivision of Kuchinda can be broadly divided into two natural divisions, the hilly regions and the plains. The hilly regions lie to the north, east and south of the subdivision, covering an area of about 1036 square Km., while the remaining 1409 square Km. are plain lands lying on the west and central part of the subdivision.

6. Hill System

The Barapahar (literally, 12 hills) are the main hill ranges in the Bargarh subdivision covering an area of over 777 square Km. and attaining a height of 2,267 feet (691 m.) at the peak of Debrigarh. Debrigarh is one of the few hills of the range offering level ground and good water-supply near the summit. It is one of the few hill sites in the district suitable for health resort. The main portion of the range is situated in the north-west of the Bargarh subdivision where it separates Ambabhona and Lakhanpur from the rest of the district. To the east of the Mahanadi, it is continued in a long chain, which gradually decreases in height till it crosses into Sundargarh district. The Mahanadi formed a lake in geological times to the north

of this range till it burst through and the lake emptied out. The Hirakud Dam has reconstructed the barrier and repeated the ancient lake. To the south-west, an outlying ridge projects for about 48 km. as far as the Singhora pass, just beyond the border of the district where the Sambalpur-Raipur Road winds through it.

The second group of hills is the Gandhamardan range running along the southern boundary of the ex-Zamindari of Borasambar, separating it from the district of Balangir. This hill range rises to 2,000—3,000 feet (629·60m. 914·40 m.) in height and reaches its highest point (3,234 feet or 985·72 m.) in the peak of Nrusimhanath, one of the picturesque places in the district. Another range branches off to the west of Nrsimhanath running first north-south and then north-east near Jagdalpur, where it is broken by the Ong (Ang) river. Another range runs eastward to Tal and then to the north-east forming the boundary between the district and Raipur district of Madhya Pradesh.

In Sambalpur subdivision, one of the principal ranges is the Jharghati which crosses the State Highway No. 10 some 22 km. north of Sambalpur near Rengali railway station. Its highest point is 516 metres above the plain. To the south are a succession of broken ranges running parallel with the Mahanadi having a height of 476 metres at Mundher and 710 metres at Bodhanpali. There are other small ranges and isolated hills, scattered over the subdivision. Among them may be mentioned a range running south-east of Sunari (a village 32 km. north-west of Sambalpur), the highest point of which is 472 metres above sea-level, and two hills close to one another about 16 km. north-west of Sambalpur, called the Gotwaki and Guja hills, with a height of 353 metres and 385 metres respectively. Another high hill is that called Mauta Bhanja (428 metres) in the range west of Rengali which is known as the Katarbaga range from the village of that name to the north. A noticeable feature of this hill system is absence of flat topped trap hills which are so common to the north and west.

The hill system of Deogarh subdivision can be grouped mainly under 4 ranges:—

(*a*) The Khajuria range on the north running from west-east in Badbar pragana of Deogarh police-station with a maximum height of 745 metres.

(*b*) The Pradhanpat and Kaidanta ranges 743 metres and 816 metres respectively are on the north, just below the Khajuria, leaving a vast plateau in between running from west-east up to the bank of the river Brahmani in Batispada pragana of Deogarh police-station.

(*c*) On the eastern side of the river Brahmani runs a range of hills called Pawri (Poudi) 678 metres in height probably named after the Paudi Bhuyans, who live in the Pawri (Paudi) reserved forest in Barakot police-station.

(*d*) The Ushakothi range in Kansar and Riamal police-stations extending into Kuchinda and Jamunkira (Jamankira) police-stations towards the west. The hill ranges of the subdivisions are thickly wooded and their elevation is from 610 metres to 762 metres above sea-level.

In Kuchinda subdivision, there are, mainly, two hill ranges one of which runs from Bandhabar pragana on the north-west of the subdivision touching the boundary of Bonai subdivision of Sundargarh district and meeting Khajuria and Pravasuni reserved forests. The second range consisting of Ushakothi and Badarama reserve, starts from the south-west of the subdivision in Gourpali pragana and meets the Kandh area of Deogarh subdivision. Besides these two notable ranges, there are small hills here and there scattered in the plains area of the subdivision.

The Rairakhol subdivision is, on the whole, hilly and hills form continuous ranges in the west, east, north, as well as in the upper central part of the subdivision. The northern hill range extends between the Baudh border and Kisinda valley covering about 259 sq.km. while the central ranges of hills extend from Sambalpur to the borders of Athmallik, and Angul subdivisions of Dhenkanal district. Important peaks on the west and east ranges are Paria (759 metres), Ghomel (723 metres), Buria Pahar (693 metres), Khajurdiha (625 metres), and in the north ranges Pali (565 metres), Derajuri (552 metres), Sursuri (577 metres), Bhaleswar (598 metres), and Bhalodari (564 metres). The southern part of the subdivision has extensive plains which are quite fertile.

7. River System

The district forms a part of the central basin of the Mahanadi which traverses it from the north-west of Sambalpur subdivision to the south-east of that subdivision for a distance of about 122 km. The second big river is the Brahmani which flows from north to south in Deogarh subdivision for a distance of 48 km. in the district. The other rivers are of minor importance as they are either tributaries of the Mahanadi or small Nullahs forming internal drainage in the hill areas of the district.

(i) Mahanadi

The Mahanadi enters the district in the north-west of Sambalpur subdivision and flows into the Hirakud reservoir which covers an area of 774·41 sq.km. when the storage water stands at 192 metres. After

crossing the Hirakud Dam it takes a wide curve and continues due south flowing into the Sonepur subdivision of Balangir district. Before construction of the Hirakud Dam the river contained, in between Padampur and Sambalpur, masses of rocks and huge boulders all over its bed which rendered it very dangerous for navigation. Even after leaving Sambalpur, its course is interrupted at places by great rocks which have been described by Sir Charles Grant as "the terror of boatmen standing up in midstream and realising the exact notion of Scylla and Charybdis". At Kansamra, 10 km. below Sambalpur, there are dangerous rapids. Further down at Huma there is sufficient shelter among these rocks to harbour large fish which respond to the call of the priests of the leaning temple and come to the steps of the bathing-ghat to be fed by the pilgrims. Nobody is allowed to catch these fishes. In spite of rocks and rapids, boats can ascend the river and before construction of the Bengal-Nagpur Railway (now renamed South-Eastern Railway), it was the main outlet for the produce of the district which was carried in boats to Cuttack. Commodities brought back were salt, cloth, kerosene, dried fish and other articles. The through traffic has now been almost entirely appropriated by the Railway and for lighter goods to a large extent by road transport. At Sambalpur, a ferry was being maintained in monsoon months and a Pontoon bridge during dry season, but a bridge over Mahanadi at Durgapali was constructed in 1951 as a part of the Hirakud Dam project. With the construction of the Railway line connecting Sambalpur with Titlagarh, a railway bridge was laid over the extension of the piers parallel to the road bridge. From the Mahanadi bridge one can get a magnificent view of the Hirakud Dam up the river and of the town of Sambalpur downstream.

The principal tributary of the Mahanadi in this district is the Ib which enters Sambalpur form Sundargarh district in the north. Pursuing a southerly course it forms a borderline between the police-stations of Brajarajnagar and Jharsuguda and then falls into the Hirakud reservoir about 26 km. north of Sambalpur. Its main tributary is the Bhedan (or Bonam) which flows from Kuchinda subdivision and joins it near Rampur. Other important tributaries of the Mahanadi on the east are the Maltijhor, Harad, and Jamli. The Maltijhor rises near the boundary of Sambalpur and Rairakhol subdivisions and for same distance passes on the border of Sambalpur and Kuchinda subdivisions. It then pursues a circuitous course to the west and south-west till it falls into the Mahanadi some 6·24 km. south of Sambalpur. The Harad flows from north-east and joins the Mahanadi close to Sambalpur, while the Jamli traverses the southern portion of Sambalpur subdivision and joins the Mahanadi at Huma.

Kuchinda subdivision is, broadly speaking, a hinterland of the Mahanadi. It is drained by four important rivers, namely, Sapai, Bhedan, Kharla and Malti. Out of these four, Bhedan and Kharla meet together at Lasa 3·22 km. away from Kuchinda and the joint stream ultimately flows into river Ib, the tributary of the Mahanadi. All these rivers, except Malti, flow from east to west of the subdivision. The Bhedan rises from the Bonai subdivision of Sundargarh district and falls into river Ib after flowing for about 129 km. Its total length in this subdivision is 64 km. The Kharla has its rise from Bonai border and it meets the Bhedan at Mahaladihi. Out of its total length of 64 km. it flows about 56 km. in this subdivision. The Malti rises from Rairakhol and falls into the Mahanadi flowing about 80 km. It flows in this subdivision for about 24 km. The Sapai has its rise from Sundargarh district and it falls into the Ib river after flowing about 56 km. of which about 24 km. are in this subdivision. These rivers are not perennial. They dry up in summer, while during rains they become torrential. They are not navigable, nor are they harnessed for any big irrigation project.

To the west, the principal tributaries of the Mahanadi are Jira and Jhaun which flow through the Bargarh plain and join the river Mahanadi in the extreme south of the district. The Jira has a main tributary, the Danta, which joins it a few miles north of its confluence with the Mahanadi near the village Gandturum in Bheran (Bheden) police-station. The Jira has been bridged on National Highway No. 6 at Bargarh by a screw-pile bridge.

The only other river calling for separate mention is the Ong (Ang) which rises in the Nawapara subdivision of Kalahandi district and enters Borasambar at its extreme south-west corner. It flows through it in a wide semi-circle from west to east and leaves the district a few miles to the east of Gaisilat eventually joining the Mahanadi in the Sonepur subdivision of Balangir district.

(ii) Brahmani

The second biggest river in the district is the Brahmani which passes through Deogarh subdivision from north to south dividing the Barakot Tahsil into almost two equal parts. Near the village Kulsara in Barakot police-station the river has a small island in its bed which is called Badkudar and the local people utilise it for the purpose of growing post-monsoon crops. The river has been bridged near Barakot by the National Highway No. 6.

(iii) Minor rivers

A small Nallah called Kharla runs east-west in the valley between he Khajuria and Pradhanpat hills and enters Kuchinda subdivision where it meets river Ib at Purunapali. The Malti has been bridged

on the National Highway No. 6 at the boundary between Sambalpur and Deogarh subdivisions. The Gohira Nallah has its origin from the village Pravasuni and flowing from west to east in the heart of Deogarh subdivision joins river Brahmani near the village Gogwa (Gogua). The Gohira has its tributary called the Motuali Nallah which rises near the village Tusula and joins Gohira at village Trib. The Arkhai Nallah which has its origin from the Hiran hill flows from west to east for about 14 Km. forming a natural boundary between Deogarh and Rairakhol subdivisions from the village Hiran to Thakramal where it joins the river Tikra in Riamal police-station. The river Tikra rises from the Kisinda hills in the north of Rairakho subdivision and passing through some important villages like Kisinda' Sarapali, and Hitasara enters into south-east of Deogarh subdivision and ultimately joins the river Brahmani at Bijigol in Talcher subdivision of Dhenkanal district. The Tikra river is formed by a combination of several hill Nallahs in the northern part of Rairakhol subdivision, namely Champali, Sankha, Andhari and Arkhai Nallah. The southern part of Rairakhol subdivision is drained to the Mahanadi by the Karandijhor, Surubali, and Harihar Nailahs. The Aunli Nallah forms the boundary between Rairakhol and Athmallik subdivisions and enters Angul subdivision. It touches Deogarh subdivision at village Aunli and Nuapara. It meets the river Tikra near Joradonga in Deogarh subdivision. There are two other small rivers in Deogarh subdivision, namely Kola (Kalla), and Mankra (Makda). The Kola (Kalla) has its origin near the village Jalisuan and it meets the Brahmani at Kulsara in Barakot Tahsil flowing from east to west. It runs for about 9 miles within this subdivision. The Mankra (Makda) has its origin at Pallahara and flowing from north to south, forms a natural boundary between Pallahara, and Deogarh subdivisions for about 10 km. It meets the river Brahmani near Bindpur.

8. Springs, Waterfalls, Lakes and Tanks

There are natural springs at Narsinghnath at the foot of Gandha-mardan hills of Padampur subdivision forming streams flowing in cascades down the steep hill side. The waterfalls are called *Kapil dhar, Bhim dhar, and Chal dhar,* which are considered to be very sacred. Thousands of people congregate every year on Sivaratri in February and on Nrusingha Chaturdasi in May to bathe in these falls.

In the Barapahar hills there are a few springs notable among which is the one near the village Ghens.

In Deogarh subdivision there are 3 small hill springs, namely Pradhanpat, Koradkot, and Liamura. Being located on hill top they falldown the slope of hills creating several waterfalls. The Pradhanp

waterfall in Deogarh subdivision supplies water to Deogarh town throughout the year while hydro-electric[1] power is generated from the Koradkot fall and supplied to Deogarh town. Koradkot and Liamura falls provide irrigation to the neighbouring areas, 50 acres of land are irrigated by the former. The latter irrigates about 30 acres.

There is no natural lake in the district. The Hirakud reservoir covers a large area in the northern part of Sambalpur subdivision. The total length of the main dam is 4,800 metres with nearly 21 km. of low earthen dyke at the flanks. The reservoir formed by the dam has a water spread of about 777 sq. km, at high level and shore line of 251 km. Its gross storage capacity is 6·60 million acre feet of which 1·88 million acre feet form a dead storage providing the minimum head for power generation. The remaining capacity of 4·72 million acre feet provides a sufficient reserve for flood control, live storage for irrigation and power generation. It is considered to be the largest artificial lake in the continent of Asia.

The natural springs which come down the Narsinghnath hills create a pool of water at the foot of the hill close to Narsinghnath Temple. The pool is called Haranpapa, the water of which is believed to be capable of washing away all sins. People accused of slaughter of cows can wipe out their sin only by a dip in this pool. A legend found in the 'Nrusimha Mahatmya' states that Lord Siva after killing the cow demon could not free himself from his sin anywhere in the world and subsequently came to this place to take a dip in the holy water and got himself released of the stigma. Many people of the neighbouring areas immerse the ashes of their forefathers in this pool, believing that they would attain heaven thereby.

There are many tanks in this district, some of which serve the purpose of irrigation. In Rairakhol subdivision alone, there are as many as 269 tanks out of which 197 tanks irrigate about 6,200 acres, Among the important tanks in Bargarh subdivision, mention may be made of the Victoria Sagar near Ghens, Yogimunda in Barpali, and Ranisagar in Bijepur. In the town of Sambalpur, the most important tank is the Chhatrasagar excavated by the Chauhan ruler Chhatra Sai. Recently, a small lake has been formed by putting a weir across the Mahanadi river in order to give people of Sambalpur easy access to river water. It has been named Ajudhia Sagar after Dr. Ajudhia Nath Khosla, former Governor of Orissa, and a boulevard made on the bank of the lake is named Sushila Vihar after the name of the late wife of the Governor. Both Ajudhia Sagar and Sushila Vihar were inaugurated on the 10th June 1964 by Dr. Ajudhia Nath Khosla.

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1. It is the oldest hydro-electric Project in India and was started by Raja Sir Sudhal Deb at the beginning of the 20th Century.

9. Geology

The geological formations represented in this district can be arranged in the following order of increasing antiquity :

Recent	.. Soil and alluvium		
Tertiary	.. Laterites and Lateritic iron-ore—usually manganiferous.		
Lower Gondwana	Damuda series	..	Kamthi stage
	Talchir series		Barakar stage, Needle shales & Sandstone. Boulder bed.
	UNCONFORMITY		
Cuddapah	.. Shales and Sandstones. Quartzites and Limestones.		
	Newer Dolerites, Pegmatites, Quartz Veins Amphibolites.		
Dharwars	.. Gondites, Mica schists, Dolomite-marble, phyllites.		
Archaeans	.. Gneisses, granites, charnockites, Mica-schist, Quartzites and Khondalites, etc.		

Geological formation

Within the Archaean sediments, the relative ages of the various representatives are uncertain. The Archaean metamorphic rocks are probably of Dharwarian and post-Dharwarian age. The strike of the rock formation is NNE-SSW to NE-SW with some local variation trending north-south. Around Sambalpur town, the strike is variable in places becoming ENE-WSW.

The gneisses of the Archaean formations may be classified into prophyritic granite-gneiss, garnetiferous grantitoid gneiss, fine-grained biotite gneiss and charnockites. The porphyritic granite gneiss is the most prevalent type. In Sambalpur district, this is mainly represented by biotite granite, although at places hornblende is also present. Pegmatite and quartz veins are common and some dykes of amphibolite and dolerite are also noticed. The dolerite and amphibolite dykes intrude the granite and biotite gneiss trending in NW-SE direction. The pegmatite veins are seen running in NE-SW direction.

The Cuddapah formations rest unconformably over the Archaeans. The rocks are normally horizontally bedded, but marginally they are frequently folded and faulted. The rocks are purple shale and slate with intercalations of limestones. The lowest beds consist of sandstones overlain in many places by clays, clayey shales and limestone.

Overlying Cuddapah are the Gondwana formations separated by a great hiatus from the older rocks of the Indian Peninsula. The basal beds of the formation are composed of grooved, striated and scratched boulders and pebbles, grits and fine clays now forming shale, the whole comprising a group of glacial deposits. These comprise the Talchirs and their contact with the metamorphics at places is a faulted one. The formations consist of Talchir boulder bed, dirty-green micaceous sandstone and needle shales in Rampur coalfield.

The coal bearing beds are fluviatile and lacustrine sediments, consisting of sandstones, shales, fireclays and coal seams. These formations are known as Barakars which carry coal and coaly shale interbedded with sandstone. The uppermost series of sandstones is correlated as Kamthi stage. The Gondwanas of the district belong to the lower division and their strike is NW-SE. Plant fossils from the Barakars east of Patrapali (21° 45′ :83°57′30″) have been identified as Glossopteris indica and Sphemopteris polymorpha. A fossil plant specimen collected from Kamthi horizon has been identified as Schizoneura gondwanensis.

Kamthis are a group of beds of conglomerate, sandstone and shale which are devoid of carbonaceous matter and present a reddish appearance due to the freely disseminated iron oxide. Analysis of two samples of the ironstone from Rampur coalfield gave Fe_3O_4—31·11 and 33·59 per cent and silica 46 and 56·06 per cent, respectively.

A part of the district is covered with irregular deposits of laterite and lateritic iron-ore at various altitudes. High level laterites are known at heights of 914 m to 1220 m capping the Khondalite of Gandhamardan hills on the Sambalpur-Balangir border. The extension of laterite capping is usually in NW-SW direction. These laterites are bauxite bearing.

Soil forms merely a cap of varying thickness derived by alteration of the rocks below so that their nature depends on the rocks from which they have been derived. The unclassified granites which is so widespread, give rise to a rather coarse sandy soil. Over the mica-schists, which occurs as patches of variable extent in the granitic area of Sambalpur the soil cap met with are argillaceous. The Gondwanas comprise of alternating shales and sandstones. The latter containing a considerable proportion of felspathic grains have weathered to Kaolin. On the whole, the flatter low-lying coal field country is more widely covered with redistributed surface capping than are the high lands.

10. Economic Minerals and Rocks

A large variety of minerals and ores occur in this district. These include bauxite, beryl, clay, coal, dolomite, graphite, limenite, iron-ore, galena, limestone, mica, ochres, quartz, etc. It has also been reported that diamond was once being collected from the bed of Mahanadi river near Hirakud. Gold is still being recovered at some places.

The district has abundant quantities of building stones and Kankar.

(1) Abrasives

Coarsely crystalised quartz are found near Satsama (21°9 : 84°05′30″) in Rairakhol subdivision. The crystal aggregates attain considerable size but undisturbed crystal is rather scarce. These can be utilised as abrasives. Pebbles of flint, chert, etc., are also found in the stream beds at some places in the district.

(2) Beryl

Large crystals of Beryl have been found in the Pegmatite near Burhiakata (21°18′ : 84°08′). The occurrence is a small one.

(3) Bauxite

Bauxite has been found to occur in the Gandhamardan plateau situated at the border of Sambalpur and Balangir districts. The potentiality of this occurrence was brought to light by the State Directorate of Mines in the year 1960-61. Bauxite occurs in the form of lenses pockets and thin blankets under a lateritic cover varying in thickness from nothing to 3-4 metres. The thickness of bauxite horizon has been found to be as much as 6 metres. The total reserves in this plateau, which covers a portion of Balangir district, have been estimated at over 2 million tonnes.

(4) Clays

The clays occurring in Sambalpur district are of three types :

(*a*) Sedimentary clay

(*b*) China-clay

(*c*) Lithomarge

The sedimentary clays which occur in beds are mainly of Gondwana age although some occurrences have been recorded in Cuddapah formations. China-clays have been derived as alteration products of grinites and other felspar-rich rocks. Lithomarge occurs in association with the laterites.

(a) FIRECLAY

Fireclay occurrences are mostly confined to the Ib river (Rampur-Hingir) Coalfield. The important occurrences are the following :—

(i) Jurabaga-Darlipali area

(ii) Kadelmunda-Kudopali-Lajkuria area

(iii) Gamhadera area

(iv) Banjari area

(v) Khaliabahal area north of Banjari

(i) *Jurabaga-Darlipali area*—The Jurabaga fireclay deposit occurs 3 kilometres south of Belpahar (21°49'20" : 83°51'), having a total thickness of 15 metres and strike length of 3,540 metres.

The clay is reported to have fusion points varying between 1,600° C and 1,640° C.

A test made on a sample of clay from the locality gave the following results:

Very hard, fine, plasticity good, colour (unburnt) dirty white, colour (burnt) white, linear shrinkage about 10 per cent, neither cracks nor fuses at about 1,400° C.

A 0·6 m. thick clay bed has been located in the nala section about 0·8 Km. north-west of Darlipali (21°46' : 83°51') village. The colour varies from white to different shades of grey but are usually stained yellow or red due to iron.

(ii) *Kadelmunda-Kudopali-Lajkuria area*—A fireclay bed is extensively developed in the Kudopali (21°47' : 83°54'30") and Lajkuria (21°48'20" : 83°54'30") area overlying the Lajkuria seam and extends over a distance of nearly 2·4 Kms. Dip of the beds varies from 8°to 10°.

(iii) *Gamhadera area*—Overlying the Gamhadera seam a 1·2m. thick horizontal bed of fireclay can be traced over a length of 1710m.

The same bed can be found between Mirdnadera and Junadih and also at Chuakani (21°50'30" : 83°53'40").

(iv) *Banjari area*—Fireclay is seen west of Banjari (21°48'30" : 83° 49'30") in a well. The thickness of the bed is about 1·5 metres and it extends in a general N 60°E direction with 6 to 8°dip towards north.

(v) *Khaliabahal area north of Banjari*—North of Banjari in the Lilari Nalla, fireclay is exposed near Khaliabahal, where it is associated with inferior grade of coal and coaly shale. The thickness is 1·8 metres and

it extends over a length of about 300 metres. It is covered by laterite and alluvium.

The reserves of fireclay estimated in the deposits mentioned abov (*i* to *v*) are as follows :

	Million Tons.
(1) With overburden and fireclay ratio of 1 : 1	10·45
(2) Overburden and fireclay ratio of 2 : 1	10·45
(3) Overburden and fireclay ratio of 3 : 1	15·68

Good deposits of fireclay are also found near Khinda (21°43′ : 83°58′), Bari Pahar (21°46′ : 83°47′), Rampur (21°46′ : 83°55′), Bundia (21°47′ : 83°55′), Katabaga (21°47′ : 83°56′), Kudopali (21°47′ : 83°54′), Ainlapali (21°47′ : 83°54′), Kirarama (21°46′ : 83°53′) Talabira (21°44′ : 83°58′). The reserves at Talabira are sizable where a thick band of fireclay overlies coaly shales. The deposit is being worked and the present output is of the order of 4,000 tonnes a month.

(*b*) CHINA-CLAY

The following china-clay deposits have been recorded :—

(*i*) *Ghichamura* (21°46′: 84°06′)—About 2 Kms. east of Ghichamura yellow and red stained china-clay is seen.

(*ii*) *Sagunpali* (21°35′ : 84°91′)—A pocket of china-clay having yellowish and greenish tinge, resulting from the decomposition of gneisses and pegmatites, occurs about 1·2 Km. north of Sagunpali. The extent is, however, small.

(*iii*) *Chuhukitikra* (21°39′ : 84°09′)—About 1 Km. north-east of Chuhukitikra, coarse-grained gneiss and pegmatites have been much altered over a large area. The weathered gneiss is associated with occasional yellow and red, impure but soft clayey bands of variable thickness. A network of coarse kaolinised pegmatite in the gneiss was encountered at the bottom of the pit and the gneiss enclosed in this network has been altered by hydrothermal action to a gritless, fine-grained creamy, soft rock, composed essentially of about 75 per cent of good clay.

The pegmatites have been completely kaolinised. The altered pegmatites consist of over 90 per cent of almost grit free, excellent white clay. The washed clay is of excellent grade, perfectly white, gritless and plastic.

(*iv*) *Piplipali* (21°11′: 83°46′)—Kaolin is reported from altered granite gneiss and pegmatite about 0·5 Km. north of Piplipali.

(*v*) *Katapali* (21°24′ : 83°38′)—The country around Katapali is flat, with occasional rocky exposures of granite gneiss, sporadically altered to kaolin.

(*vi*) *Baresinghari* (21°25′ : 83°56′)—About 1·5 Km. south-west of the village, the clay is derived from the alteration of quartz-sericite-schist and sericite-schists, which have been kaolinised by the adjacent granitic magma. The proportion of clay varies from 25 to 50 per cent of the bulk of the altered rock.

The clay is not plastic. On burning it retains its whiteness and its linear shrinkage is about 20 per cent. It does not crack but softens slightly at about 1,400° C.

Other deposits have been recorded from Desar (21°37′: 83°52′) and Paharsirgira (21°28′: 83°46′), Katapali (21°24′: 83°38′), Banjipali. (21°21′ : 83°46′) and Danga Chancha (20°54′ : 83°02′).

(*c*) WHITE CLAY (LITHOMARGE)

(*i*) *Khola* (21°39′: 83°39′)—To the south-east of Khola village in Bargarh subdivision, a bed of white clay with traces of creamy or yellowish clayey layers occur associated with ferruginous quartzitic sandstones of Cuddapah age.

This clay is soft, fine and of good plasticity. The colour when unburnt is cream-white and it is greyish white when burnt. Linear shrinkage is about 12·5 per cent. It neither cracks nor fuses at about 1,400° C.

(*ii*) *Baripahar* (21°46′ : 83°47′)—Clay beds occur interbedded with sandstones in the hill 0·6 Km. north of Baripahar village. These clays presumably persist laterally around the hills. There are three bands of clay found in this locality.

The physical properties are almost similar to Khola deposits. These can be utilised either as refractory clays or for glazed stoneware tiles, etc.

Deposits of white lithomarge associated with ochre occur about 0·5 Km. north-west of Akhradand (21°39′ : 84°12′) in the Nalibassa hill range bordering Bamra. The deposits occur along a ridge of laterite striking WNW-ESE. The white lithomarge and ochre occur as bands in the lateritised rocks. Dips are vertical or steep. The width of the bands varies from a few cms. to 6 m. The washed white clay is of excellent type, because of its white colour, fineness, plasticity and freedom from grit.

Test results

Colour (unburnt)—Pink, colour (burnt): yellowish grey, linear shrinkage: about 10 per cent, neither cracks nor fuses at about 1,400° C, bric friable.

Rail (21°07′: 84°34′)—White clays have been marked at about 2·5 Kms. NE of Rail near Rairakhol. This has been derived from the alteration of Gondwana sandstones. It is fairly free from ferruginous materials but much admixed with quartz. The washed material shows excellent plasticity but the quality is variable from place to place.

(5) Coal

Mention about the occurrence of coal, which in this district is confined to the area known as Ib river (Rampur-Hingir) coal field was made as early as 1884 by the Asiatic Society of Bengal. This coalfield forms the eastern end of a basin of Gondwana rocks extending north-west wards up to Cheraipani, north of Raigarh in Madhya Pradesh. Within the coalfield there are several seams of coal of which the Rampur, Lajkuria and Gamhadera are important. Rampur seam is exposed in the Lilari Nala section north of Darlipali (21°46′: 83°52)′. Lajkuria seam has been encountered in a pit south-west of Kadelmunda (21°46′30″: 83°51′30″), whereas Gamhadera seam has been exp sed in the Gamhadera nala N. E. of Bholamal (21°47′30″: 83°50′). Another seam known as Ib river seam, which has been encountered in pits put on the eastern bank of the river, is often correlated with Rampur seam by some and with Bangiow seam (a seam occurring below Rampur seam) by others.

The Rampur seem is about 30 metres thick with 15 metres of workable coal; the bottom 3 metres is classified as Grade I and is being worked. The rest of the coal in the field is inferior in quality with ash content ranging from 20 to 35 per cent. The coal from the field is non-coking.

Analysis of coal of the different seams are as follows:

	Moisture	Ash	Volatile matter	Fixed carbon	Calorific value
Rampur seam (Bottom section).	4–10%	13—20%	30	45—50%	About 10,000 B.Th.u/Lb
Lajkuria seam (Average analysis of 1′8 metre section).	9·90	21·21	31·45	37·44	9,036
Gamhadera seam ..	12·22	25·00	29·44	33·34	8,204
Banglow (Ib) seam (Average of 2′2 m. section).	9·80	12·80	28·44	48·96	10,840

The recoverable reserves available up to a depth of 152 metres (500 ft.) are estimated at 33·5 million tonnes of Grade I coal and about 195 million tonnes of inferior coal. The total reserves in the whole field may be over 730 million tonnes.

(6) Diamond

Collection of diamonds from the beds of the Mahanadi, Ib, and other tributaries has been recorded. The best known locality is Hirakud (21°32′: 83°56′) but so far no diamond bearing horizon has been located.

(7) Gold

Alluvial gold is reported from river sands and gravels over the metamorphic rocks of the district but no auriferous vein has yet been located in the associated rocks. Gold washing is practised around Sonamohan (21°46′ : 84°13′), Dantamura (21°43′ : 83°56′), Hirakud (21°32′: 83°56′) and other places. The yield is negligible.

(8) Graphite

Occurrences of graphite have been recorded at Dangachancha (20°0′59″ : 83°02′26″), Sargipali (20°54′32″ : 83°04′46″), Dahigaon (20°55′55″ : 83°05′26″), Semilamunda (20°56′30″ : 83°13′30″), Tentulikhunti and south of Doigma (20°56′ : 84°08′), Kukrimunda (20°52′: 83°3′30″), Siletpara (20°52′ : 83°01′30″), Bardapali (20°52′30″ : 83°02′30″) near Buren (Buden) (20°53′: 83°33′30″), and Dahita (20°54′30″: 83°08′), and at Kholgarh State Forest 1·2 Km. north of Rampur (20°04′: 84°21′) and Hariharjhor valley about 1·6 Km. ESE of Kantibahal (21°04′: 84°02′).

The mineral occurs as veins, pockets or bands in the garnetiferous gneiss, which are a variety of khondalites. At Sargipali, which is the most important occurrence in this district, graphite occurs in the form of a lense shaped vein, of about 6 metres thick at its centre. The quality of the graphite is quite high, the fixed carbon content being about 45 per cent on the average.

(9) Iron-ore

About 4 occurrences of iron-ore have been recorded, scattered irregularly in the district. The ores vary in composition from hematite-quartz-limonite rock, to nearly pure hematite with traces of pyrolusite and wad. The ore contains 55 to 58 per cent iron, 0·75 per cent manganese and 0·31 per cent phosphorous on an average. The deposits are usually of superficial laterite, capping granite gneiss or ferruginous quartzite. The localities and reserves are detailed below:

1. Lohakhand (21°41′: 84°09′)	.. 5·08	million tonnes.
2. Akhradand (21°39′ : 84°12′) in Nalibassa hill :	15·24	Ditto
3. 1·6 Km. S.-E. of Khirapali (21°09′ : 82°58′) :	3·04 ..	Ditto
4. 3·2 Km. S.-E. of Mahubata (21°47′ : 82°33′):	1·01 ..	Ditto

Specimen of fine-grained magnetite and limonite from around Mundher (21°20′:84°05′) have been identified. They contain traces of nickel, but no vanadium could be found.

(10) Lead and Silver Ore

Occurrences of lead and silver ore are reported from Junai (21°32′: 83°51′), Thuntikatarbaga (21°42′: 84° 00′), Gangajal (21°38′30″ : 84°32′), Talpatia (21°57′: 84° 01′), and Padampur (21°45′ : 83°34′). These are of no economic importance.

(11) Limestone and Dolomite

Extensive deposits of limestone suitable for lime burning, fluxing in the iron and steel and other metallurgical industries and cement making, occur in Sambalpur district. Also found associated with limeston are deposits of Dolomite and Dolomitic limestone.

The occurrences are near Sulai (21°58′ : 84°06′), Padampur (21°45′ : 83°34′), Lakhanpur (21°38′ : 83°37′), Dungri (21°42′ : 83°34′), Sauntmal (21°41′ : 83°33′), Badmal (21°41′ : 83°30′), Behera (21°39′ : 83°32′), Banjipali (21°38′: 83°30′), Kusmuda(21°37′: 83°30′), Putka(21°10′:22°58′), Ruchida (21°36′ : 83°24′), Duari (21°33′ : 83°26′), Purapali (21°32′ : 83°24′), Jampali (21°33′ : 83°24′), Darlipali (21°31′ : 83°23′), Pikrijharan (21°31′ : 83°23′), Kutrapali (21°31′ : 83°22′), and Kandaipali (21°36′ : 83°29′).

The deposits, a brief description of which follows, may be grouped into the following eight areas:

(*i*) Dungri-Banjipali
(*ii*) Lakhanpur
(*iii*) Padampur
(*iv*) Sulai
(*v*) Putka
(*vi*) Ruchida
(*vii*) Duari-Kutrapali
(*viii*) Kandaipali

Portions of the deposits grouped under (1) and (3) have been submerged in the Hirakud reservoir.

(*i*) DUNGRI-SAUNTMAL-BADMAL-BEHRRA-KUSUMDA-BANJIPALI AREA

Extensive deposits of massive, pink coloured and hard limestone occur in a strip of plain country between Dungri in the north and Banjipali in the S. W. over a strike length of about 13 Kms. The limestone is interbedded with shales and quartzites and dip at angles of 8°—12°, the direction varying from west to N. W. and at 15°—35° towards N. E. The maximum thickness of limestone beds exposed in nalas is of the order of 8 metres. A reserve of 38 million tons of limestone of cement grade has been proved by the State Directorate of Mines.

(*ii*) LAKHANPUR

Outcrops of limestone with shales and quartzites are to be found near Lakhanpur in a valley East of Dungri. These beds are folded in the form of an assymetric syncline, with a steeply dipping western limb. A small band of limestone in the centre is reported to contain less than 2 per cent magnesia.

Outcrops of Dolomite are found about 1·2 Km. East of Leleher (21°40′ : 83°37′) and 400 m. S. W. of Paruabhadi (21°40′: 83°38′).

(*iii*) PADAMPUR

Exposures of Dolomitic and high silica limestones are found near Tamdei (21°43′30″ : 83°35′30″), Launsara (21°43′30″ : 83°33′), Padampur (21°45′ : 83°34′), Bardarha (21°48′ : 83°31′), Kushumal (21°45′ : 83°33′), and Gudum (21°44′ : 83°32′).

(*iv*) SULAI

Deposits of Dolomite occur around Sulai, Kainsara and Singipali along Sapai Nadi. A reserve of 5·52 million tons has been estimated by the Directorate of Mines. The average range of chemical composition shows MgO : 17—22 per cent, CaO : 22—30 per cent, and SiO_2-6 per cent.

(*v*) PUTKA

Limestone, dolomitic limestone and dolomites interbedded with quartzites and shales occur as scattered exposures in and around the villages Putka and Saramsil. The deposit is reported to be extensive. A sample analysed as follows : CaO : 26.88 per cent, MgO : 20·04 per cent, SiO_2 : 8·1 per cent, Al_2O_3 : 0·82 per cent.

(*vi*) RUCHIDA

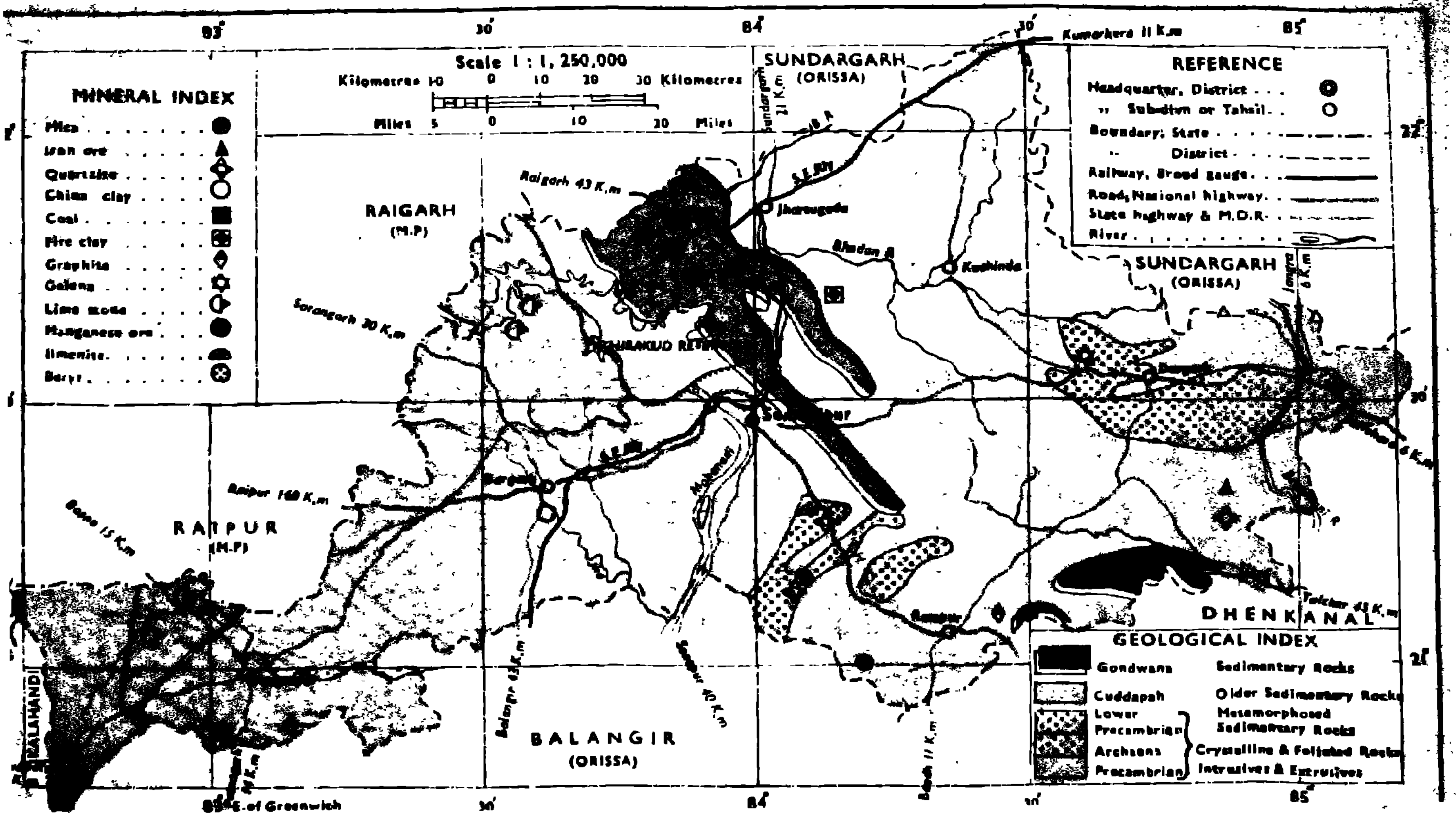
Outcrops of dolomitic limestones have been noticed for a length of 270 m. The reserve will be about 0·78 million tons.

(*vii*) DUARI-KUTRAPALI

All the limestone outcrops show a strike of ENE-WSW with very little deviation at places. The amount of dip is low and varies between 4° to 5° in a WNW direction. The rock is homogeneous and is of uniform quality. Isolated patches met with are in cultivated fields. A reserve of about 75,000 metric tons have been estimated for this band.

(*viii*) KANDAIPALI

The limestones are very hard compact light-pink colour, siliceous in nature. These have a general trend of N 50° E-S 50° W and dip of about 15° towards N 40° W. The reserve is scanty.


Scale 1 : 1,250,000
Kilometres 10 0 10 20 30 Kilometres
Miles 5 0 10 20 Miles
MINERAL INDEX
Mica
Iron ore
Quartzite
China clay
Coal
Fire clay
Graphite
Galena
Lime stone
Manganese ore
Ilmenite
Beryl
REFERENCE
Headquarter, District
" Subdivn or Tahsil
Boundary: State
" District
Railway, Broad gauge
Road, National highway
State highway & M.D.R.
River
GEOLOGICAL INDEX
Gondwana Sedimentary Rocks
Cuddapah Older Sedimentary Rocks
Lower Precambrian Metamorphosed Sedimentary Rocks
Archaeans Crystalline & Foliated Rocks
Precambrian Intrusives & Extrusives
SUNDARGARH (ORISSA)
SUNDARGARH (ORISSA)
RAIGARH (M.P)
RAIPUR (M.P)
BALANGIR (ORISSA)
DHENKANAL
KALAHANDI
Kumarkera 11 K.m
Raigarh 43 K.m
Sarangarh 30 K.m
Raipur 160 K.m
Basna 15 K.m
Balangir 43 K.m
Sonepur 40 K.m
Talcher 43 K.m
Sundargarh 21 K.m
Jharsuguda
Kuchinda
S.E.Rly
Bargarh
Mahanadi
83° 30′ 84° 30′ 85°
83° E. of Greenwich

12. Manganese Ore

Near Kandhal (21°3′ : 84°10′15″) in Rairakhol subdivision on the precipitous slope midway between hill 1902 and hill 1548, boulders of manganese ore were seen. The manganese ores occur in association with Khondalite rocks and are mostly low grade.

13. Mica

Ruby mica occurs in Bargarh (including Padampur) subdivision in pegmatites at Fraserpur (20°59′ : 82°51′), Kenchhododar (20°59′ : 82°51′), Hirapur (20°58′ : 82°50′), Maharanimeripur (20°56′ : 82°50′), Jharmunda (20°57′ : 82°51′) and other neighbouring localities. Mica is also reported to occur around Bartunda (20°50′ : 82°45′), Jamseth (20°49′ : 82°43′) and Temrimal (20°45′ : 82°44′) in the same subdivision. Occurrences have been reported in Rairakhol area at Laiza (21°10′ : 84°24′), Kuakhol (21°4′ : 84°6′) and Rampur. But all these occurrences are not of economic importance.

14. Mineral Pigments

Lateritised rocks, altered Khondalite, Carbonaceous phyllites, Cuddapah and Gondwana red shales of the district can be used as mineral pigments. In the Gondwanas, thin bands of soft red shales occur near Liakhai (21°51′ : 83°50′) and Ulap (21°51′ : 83°49′). The nodular iron stone bands occasionally weather into concentric scaly ochrous patches. The material is usually soft and the black shales in the western Jurabaga fireclay quarries may be used as a black pigment.

15. Rock Crystals

Rock crystals are common in the gneissic tracts of Sambalpur district. Such deposits have been found around Pandri (21°11′ : 84°06′), Koinsar (21°15′ : 84°07′), Bharimura (21°13′ : 184°06′), Jujomura (21°14′ : 84°08′), Bhoipali (21°26′ : 84°06′), Meghpal (21°20′ : 84°15′) and Satsama (21°09′ : 84°06′).

Rose quartz has been noted in some of the quartz veins near Rangiatikra (21°11′ : 84°17′), Ghichamura (21°46′ · 84°06′) and Burhiakata (21°18′ : 84°08′).

(16) Building Materials

A major portion of the district is composed of Archaean basement rocks which are quite suitable for use as building materials. The quartz sillimanite schists at Dudkabahal (21°57′ : 84°15′) have been quarried for building purposes. Black slates, at times also red, obtained from the Mahanadi bed are used for roofing and flooring in Sambalpur town. The small ridges about 1·6 Km. of Khaatamal (21°55′ : 84°17′) consist of angular fragments of epidote and quartz cemented by a network of secondary quartz of variegated colour, which are used for decoration of

the buildings. The silicified fault breccia near Putka (21°10′ : 82°58′) containing network of chalcedony, flint, Jasper and bloodstones are also suitable for ornamental purposes.

The extensive deposits of Cuddapah sandstones quartzitic sandstones and flagstones of Bargarh subdivision find their importance as building material in the locality. Fine grained Gondwana sandstones of Ib river valley are quarried and dressed to be used as a building material. The thin red flagstones of Liakhai (21°51′ : 83°50′) and Ulap (21°51′ : 83°49′) are suitable for roofing purpose. Laterites are also found in abundance in the district which can be used for construction of buildings and the loose laterites are used as road material.

Superficial Kankar locally known as *Asurahada* occurs widespread as concretionary matter in the alluvium covering rocks of widely different composition. It is used locally for lime making.

The dolerites and epidiorites and other intrusives are used as road metal. Huge deposits of quartzite pebbles and conglomeratic sandstones are used as railway ballasts. Some vein quartz around Jharsuguda (21°-51′ : 84°-01′) may be used as road metals.

Gneisses, quartzites and porphyritic granites are also quite widespread. These constitute excellent building stones.

11. Mineral Production and Mines

An area of 45·44 Sq. Kms. is now covered under mining lease in this district and the number of leases is 27 (1969).

Among the minerals/ores produced in the district are included coal, fireclay, limestone, graphite and chinaclay.

12. Flora

The district lies within the great sal belt and in the south-east, where the climate is somewhat moist the forest has a tendency to become nearly evergreen. With the *sal* are found certain of its usual associates such as *sahaj* (*Terminalia tomentosa*) which yields the commonest of all building materials, its bark being also used for tanning, *Bijasal* (*Pterocarpus marsupium*), which is used for making furniture, *dhaura* (*Anogeissus latifolia*) which is also used for building and invariably for cart axles, *arjun* (*Terminalia arjuna*) and *Jamun* (*Eugenia jombolana*). In this district, however, *sal* forests do not reach their full expression. They are situated chiefly on dry hills or on flat lands where past uncontrolled cultivation has affected soil drainage. In consequence, a drier type of mixed deciduous species occupy a large portion of the forests. These species include Karla (*Cleistanthus collinus*), which is very common,

Jhingan (*Odina Wodier*), Dhaura (*Anogeissus latifolia*), and *kendu* (*Diospyros melanoxylon*) which is common everywhere, persisting as a weed in land cleared for cultivation, its leaves being extensively collected every spring for wrapping tobacco for Biri making.

This dry mixed formation has, in its turn, to fight a stern battle with Bamboos (*Dendrocalamus strictus*), especially where the underlying rock is a granite or a gneiss. In fact, bamboos, almost pure or mixed with a dry deciduous type of forest, approximate in extent to the more valuable and gregarious *sal*.

Amongst other trees of economic importance found in the district are teak (*Tectona grandis*) which is found only in small plantations, Sisoo or rosewood (*Dalbergia latifolia*), Gambhari or Kumar (*Gmelina arborea*), Bhira or satin-wood (*Chloroxylon swietenia*). From the Harrida or Harra (*Terminalia chebula*) the myrobalans of commerce are obtained and its allied species Bahera (*Terminalia belerica*) yields an inferior timber and a fruit which is used medicinally. The wood of the Kusum (*Schleichera trijuga*) is commonly used for making sugar-cane and oil pressing, while its fruit is eaten, and oil is extracted from its seed. The Simul or silk-cotton tree (*Bombax malabaricum*) is common in the forests and also in the open country, the cotton surrounding the seeds being used to stuff quilts and cushions and the wood for making match sticks.

Among trees conspicuous for their beautiful flowers may be mentioned the Sunari or Amaltas (*Cassia fistula*) with long pendulous recemes of yellow flowers, which have given it the name of the Indian laburnam, and also the Ganiari (*Cochlospermum gossypium*) a tree with large yellow flowers growing on dry stony slopes ; the wood of the latter tree was used by postal runners for torches during night time, while its gum furnishes an article of food. Of other flowering trees the most common are the Kuthar or Kachnar (*Bauhinia variegata*) with large blossoms of four white petals and one pink or variegated petal, and the Palas or Palsa (*Butea frondosa*), remarkable for its brilliant scarlet-orange flowers appearing when the tree is quite leafless ; the latter are useful for dyeing, while its fibrous roots are made into ropes. The Siris (*Albizzia lebbek*), a handsome tree with greenish yellow flowers is found in the forest, but is rare. The principal flowering shrubs are the Kharkhasa or Siharu (*Nyctanthes arbor-tristis*), with fragrant yellowish-white-flowers used for garlands and also for dyes, and the Dhatuki or Dhauri (*Woodfordia floribunda*) bearing red flowers, which are made into the vermilion dye so familiar during the Holi festival. Flowering herbaceous plants are few and the most brilliant flowers are found on the trees.

Among small trees or shrubs growing in scrub-jungle may be mentioned the Char (*Buchanania latifolia*) the fruit of which is an ingredient of sweetmeats and is also bartered for salt ; the graceful Anla (*Phyllanthus emblica*), the leaves of which are used for tanning ; and Dhaman (*Grewia vestita*), the wood of which is made into cart shafts. There are two species of Zizyphus very common in the forests, viz., Bair (*Zizyphus jujuba*), which is found on the sites of old deserted villages, and Chanto or Chato (*Zizyphus xylopyra*). There are also two species of Gardenia viz., Kurdu or Dekamali (*Gardenia gummifera*) the gum of which is used medicinally, while its fruit is eaten when ripe, and Damkurdu (*Gardenia latifolia*), from the wood of which combs are made. The fruit of the Patwapahal or Mainphal (*Randia dumetorum*) is used medicinally and the roots of the Dure or Duda (*Holarrhena antidysenterica*) are an antidote for diarrhoea and dysentery. Three other trees common in scrub-jungle on the dry slopes of the hills are Salhia or Salai (*Boswellia serrata*), Girungila or Kuli (*Sterculia urens*) and Mai or Mowai (*Odina Wodier*).

The principal creepers are Sailpatta or Mahula (*Bauhinia vahlii*) the leaves of which are used for making country umbrellas and for plates, while the pods are fried, the seeds are eaten, and the fibrous bark is converted into string ; and Budhla (*Butea superba*), the leaves and flower of which resemble those of the Palas (*Butea frondosa*). *Dendrocalamus strictus* is the only bamboo found in the forests.

Of trees growing in the open country, the most important is the Mahula or Mahua (*Bassia latifolia*) with its lofty spreading foliage. Its flowers are used as an article of food and also for the manufacture of country spirit. Babul (*Acacia arabica*) is a tree favouring black cotton soil and except on the banks of tanks and in Borasambar ex-Zamindari, it is rare in the district. Of the *Ficus* family, Dumri or Gular (*Ficus glomerata*), Bar or banyan (*Ficus bergalensis*) and pipal (*Ficus religiosa*) are abundant in the open country, and are also planted in village from religious motives, for they are believed to be the resort of the Gods and Goddesses of Hindu pantheon. The most common tree planted in groves in the neighbourhood of villages is the mango. Other trees planted for the sake of their fruit are Tentuli or tamarind (*Tamarindus indica*), Kaith (*Feronia elephantum*), Bair or wild plum (*Zizyphus jujuba*), Panus or jack-fruit (*Artocarpus inte-gr folia*), Manuage (*Moringa pterygosperma*) Jambu or Jamun (*Eugenia jambolana*), and Bahalphal (*Cordia myxa*) Limb or Nim (*Melia ndi a*) is planted freely, as it is supposed to be a disinfectant purifying the air ; karanj (*Pongamia glabra*) is planted for the sake of its fruit and the oil extracted from its seeds, which is used medicinally for itches. The following trees are generally planted about the precincts of temples : Bel (*Aegle marmelos*), Baula or Molsuri (*Mimusops Elengi*) and Asoka (*Polyalthia longifolia*). The leaves of the first

are sacred to Siva, the fragrant star-like flowers of the second are an object of worship, and the twigs and leaves of the third are used on festival occasions for festooning the shrines. Of the trees mentioned above, the Gular, banyan, Pipal, mango, Jamun, Karanj and Asoka are commonly grown in avenues, and other avenue trees often planted are Bakam (*Millingtonia hortensis*) and Siris (*Albizzia lebbek*). The palmyra palm (*Borassus flabellifer*) is planted in many villages, as its fruit when ripe is used as an article of food. The date palm (*Phoenix sylvestris*) is also met with, but not in all parts of the district. The Kattang bamboo (*Bambusa arundinacea*) is often found planted in towns and villages.

There is a dearth of good grazing grasses, but the succulent Dub (*Cynodon dactylon*), which is sacred to Ganesh, grow all over the district on sandy soil where there is some moisture. Another good grass called Musakani or Musyal (*Isellema Wightii*) is generally confined to old fallows or the ridges which form the boundaries of fields ; it prefers clay soil and is rarely found in the forests. The commonest grass of all is the Sukla or Kusal (*Poilinia argentea*), which is found everywhere in the forests, and elevated places ; it is really the common fodder grass of the district, and is excellent while young. Another grass found all over the district in small quantities is Panasi or Bhaber (*Pollinia eriopoda*), which is used for rope-making. Among rarer grasses may be mentioned Kel or Kaila (*Andropogon annulatus*), Khas (*Andropogon squavrosus*), Tikhari (*Andropogon Schaenanthus*), which yields the aromatic rusa oil, and Kans (*Saccharum spontaneum*), which is used in religious ceremonies and is an enemy dreaded by the wheat cultivator There are two weeds of the *Cassia* species. of which *Cassia tora* (known as Chakhanda) is very common ; it is eaten when young as a vegetable.

Spear-grass (*Heteropogon contortus*) is very common in the forests. Tigers and leopards avoid it in winter as the spear pricks them. The spear takes the form of an obtuse angle. The long arm if wetted with spit goes round and straightens itself. This provides considerable amusement to visitors to the forests in winter.

The following gives a list of common grasses found in this district :

FODDER GRASS

1. *Cynodon dactylon* (Dub)
2. *Cyperus rotundus* (Mutha)
3. *Cynodon barberi*
4. *Ischaemum nervosum*
5. *Amphilophis pertusus*
6. *Eremopogon foveolatus*
7. *Digitarlamarginata*
8. *Cenchrus ciliaris*
9. *Enteropogon monostachyos*

THATCHING GRASS

10. *Eulaliopsis binata* (sabai)—Used for paper pulp and also fodder in young stage.
11. *Sachharum spontaneum* (Kans)
12. *Themeda triandra*—eaten by cattle, in succulant stage
13. *Themeda cymberia*
14. *Apluda aristate*
15. *Cymbopogoan gidarba*—also used as fodder
16. *Aristida setacea*—(Kanta badhuni) used for brooms
17. *Oropelium thonacum*
18. *Chlorio bonore*
19. *Sachha um munja*—(Munja grass)
20. *Vetiveria zizanoides* (Khuskhus)
21. *Imperata arundinacea* (Jhun)
22. *Heteropogon contortus*—(Spear grass)—also relished by cattle as fodder before flowering.
23. *Cymbopogon martini* (Lemon grass)—Oil is extracted

13. Fauna or Zoology

King's Gazetteer of 1932 has the following :

"Sambalpur", writes Mr. Dewar*, "is reputedly a good big game district, and in past years has been one of the happiest hunting grounds in the Central Provinces. But the cutting out of the forests and the spread of rice and cane cultivation into all the valleys and up all the streams have of late years curtailed the grazing grounds of wild animals and cut off their water-supplies. The available watering places are few and are easily watched by the poacher who does much killing by night in the hot months. This abuse is very difficult to stop so long as the profitable trade in hides and horns is not restricted".

King's Gazetteer continues "In spite, however, of this diminution in the number of wild animals, and especially of ruminants, few districts in Bihar and Orissa have such a wealth and variety of animal life. Though their numbers have greatly decreased in recent years, tigers are still fairly numerous. They are found mostly in the forest-clad hills bordering the district, from which they move into the neighbouring States if disturbed by wood-cutting, coming back again when felling begins there. Panthers are more common than tigers, though more rarely seen by the sportsman ; they frequent open scrub-jungle throughout the district, and, like tiger, are very destructive to cattle. Black panthers have been shot in the south-west of the district. Leopards are common in the wooded tracts and are found in most of the small hills near villages.

* Mr. Dewar did the Settlement of Sambalpur in 1902—1906.

They are most daring in their depredations, often scaling the walls of a goat or sheep pen in the heart of a village and carrying off village dogs in the coolest manner. Among other species of the family *Felidae* may be mentioned the large civet cat, the lesser civet cat, the tree cat, the common jungle cat, and the leopard cat.

The Indian wolf (*Canis Pallipes*) is occasionally found. Wild dogs (*Cuon alpinus dukhunensis*) frequent the forests and are very destructive to game. The striped hyena and jackal are found all over the district. The Indian fox is fairly common in the more open parts. The Indian black bear or sloth bear is very common in the forests, where his surly temper makes him more dangerous to the wayfarer even than tiger. Maulings by bear are frequent, most of the victims being women going along the jungle paths with loads to market or gathering mahua flowers in the early morning on the skirts of the forests. They also do a considerable amount of damage in the cane fields.

Wild elephants have reappeared in the east and south-east of the district, and during their visits cause very serious damage to crops, especially in the rice fields adjoining the jungles. Wild pig is also responisible for such mischief to crops.

Wild buffalc (*Bubalus bubalis*) is very rare. They may be found across the border in Patna State, but only a rare visitor ever enters the Sambalpur district. Bison (*Bos gaurus gaurus*) are fairly common especially in the forests bordering Rairakhol and Bamra States. Among deer, chital or spotted deer (*Axis axis*), Sambhur (*Cervus unicolor . iger*) and barking deer (*Muntiacus muntjak*), are all fairly well represented, though not plentiful. The four-horned antelope (*Tetracerus quadricornis*), gazelle or chinkara (*Gazelle bennetti*) and mouse deer (*Tragulus memin u*) occur but are not common. The nilgai or blue bull is fairly common. The black buck (*Antilope cervicapra*) is found in open country in the south of the district, especially south-west of Barpali.

Amongst other animals found in the district may be mentioned the rare brown flying-squirrel (*Petaurista petaurista philippensis*) which can glide from tree to tree. The langur or grey ape is common, and the red-faced monkey is also frequently encountered. Hedgehog, porcupine, mongoose, hare, badger and scaly ant-eater are also to be found in the district."

In spite of diminution of wild life noticed by King, Sambalpur district, even without the Princely States of Bamra and Rairakhol, was a paradise for hunters. The Deputy Commissioner of Sambalpur who did not take interest in wild life was a misfit. It was an unwritten convention of the Appointment Department of Government of the then Bihar and Orissa that the Deputy Commissioner of Sambalpur should co-operate with officers of the Forest Department in enforcing shooting rules and be able to organise controlled shooting. This was a consideration for posting officers.

Today it has to be recorded with a deep sense of disappointment that during the last 20 years not only in the old Sambalpur district but also in the added subdivisions which have come from the Princely States, wild life has been almost completely exterminated except what exists in the sancturies of Ushakothi and Debrigarh. Even there, wild animals are disturbed either by poachers or by spot-lights of visiting motorists. Between 1930 and 1934, the Chief Editor (Shri Nilamani Senapati, I. C. S.) could count 50 tigers in the old Sambalpur district of which he was Deputy Commissioner. In that area today there is not one. He had seen twice or thrice as many leopards and bears and as many bisons and Sambars. Today there are few. This unfortunate state of affairs has been brought about by large scale extension of cultivation, working of timber and fuel coupes, poaching both by day and by motor vehicles at night shooting over water holes and salt licks and by poisoning of carcasses with pesticides.

The state of wild life and the state of forests in 1932-33 has been described in Appendix-I, which has been taken from the auto-biography of the Chief Editor with reference to the period when he was Deputy Commissioner of Sambalpur.

The following list gives the common wild animals of the district :—

Ungulates	..	Elephant, Bison, Sambar, Nilgai, Spotted deer, Barking deer, Chousinga (Four horned antelope) Mouse deer, Wild boar.
Carnivora	..	Tiger, Panther or Leopard, Sloth bear, Ratel or Honey badger, Hyena, Jackal, Indian fox, Wild dog, Leopard Cat, Jungle Cat, Civet Cat, Palm Civet, Mongoose, Otter.
Rodents	..	Porcupine, Malabar-Squirrel, Indian Giant Squirrel, Hare.
Pre-historic	..	Scaly Ant-eater or Indian Pangolin (This has become rare).
Primates	..	Common Langur, Rhesus macaque
Reptiles	..	Crocodile, Land monitor, Chameleon, other Lizards Python, Branded-Krait, King-Cobra, Cobra Vipers, other snakes.
Aves water Resident	..	White necked stork, Open-billed stork, Black Ibis, White Ibis, Cranes, Egrets, Herons, Cormorants, Darters, Moor-hen, Jacanas, Whistling Teal, Cotton Teal, Kingfisher, Pheasants.
Migratory	..	Croleg-geese, Barheaded geese, Red-headed-pochard, Pin-tail, Brahminy Duck, various teals and other pochards, flamingo, Pelicans, open bill, snipes, stilts.

Ground Birds ..	Peacock, peafowl, red Jungle fowl, grey partridge black partridge, common quail, fowl, etc.
Other land Birds	Malabar-pied hornbill, grey horn-bill, mynas (including greater hill Myna), parrots, parakeets lorikeets, orioles, drongos (including rocket-tail drongo), fly-catchers, barbets, minivets, finches, bul-bul, munias, robins, shama, doves (turtle, emerald, ring, common), pigeons (imperial and green) and many other varieties of diurnal and nocturnal birds.

14. Game Birds

The district also possesses a comparatively rich variety of game birds. The common peafowl *(Pavo Cristatus)* the red jungle fowl *(Gallus gallus)* and bush and button quail (*Turnix Dussum'er* and *Turnix Tanki*) are all common in the forests. Grey partridge (*Francolinus po.dicerianus*) are not very common but spur fowl (*Galloperdix Spadicea* and *Galloperdix lunulata*) are met with fairly frequently. Green pigeon of the large and small variety and blue imperial pigeon are common in all jungle villages. An occasional florican, or lesser bustard, may also be found.

Of water-fowl there are many representatives. Duck and teal abound on the many tanks scattered throughout the district and also on the Mahanadi and Ib while snipe is equally plentiful on the marshy ground and irrigated rice-fields below tanks. Other varieties of immigrant duck are the pintail, the gadwall and the Brahminy. The common whistling teal, the large whistling teal and the cotton teal are plentiful and the blue-winged teal is also fairly frequently found. Good snipe-shooting can be had in many places in the district though the snipe grounds are seldom more than a hundred acres in area, so that big bags cannot be made. Pintail, fan-tail and painted snipe are all found in the district.

15. Reptiles

Snakes, including the very poisonous Krait *(Bungarus caeruleus)*, cobra *(Nara tripudians)*, and Russell's Viper (*Vipera Russelli*) are numerous. Lizards of all kinds are common, and the iguana is caught for its skin and eaten by the lowest classes. Crocodiles and alligators are now common in the Hirakud lake.

16. Sanctuaries

(i) Ushakothi

The Ushakothi sanctuary covers the Ushakothi Forest Block in Bamra Forest Division over an area of 194 Sq. km. It lies about 48 km. to the north-east of Sambalpur town on National Highway

No. 6. The most important animals in this Block are elephant, bison, sambar, barking deer, pig, tiger, and leopard. Bisons are found in large herds in this block. There are a few forest roads and extraction paths and a well furnished Forest Rest House adjacent to it on the National Highway No. 6 at Badarama. A large number of tourists get attracted each year to this Sanctuary and rarely miss the interesting fauna. A register, maintained in the Forest Rest House at Badarama, indicates the interesting remarks and satisfaction of the tourists. Spot lights are also available in the Forest Rest House for use by the tourists during night. Watch towers have been erected at places to provide for a close watch or photographing the animals. Shooting has been strictly prohibited.

(*ii*) **Debrigarh**

(In old Barapahar Forest Division now under Sambalpur Division)

It was established in 1930 with the initiative of the then Deputy Commissioner of Sambalpur. It extends over an area of about 14·24 Sq. km. This sanctuary is situated in Debrigarh Felling Series in Bhatli Range in old Barapahar Division. Elephants, wild buffaloes and black bucks are not found in this area. All other species are well represented. In recent years there has been gradual decrease in animals due to proximity to habitation. Spotted deer and sambars are some of the most extensively occurring species here, but have been sadly depleted.

The proposed Debrigarh (Extension) sanctuary is situated in the reserved forests under old Barapahar Division. It comprises of Lohara, Debrigarh, and Dechua blocks covering a total area of 419·58 Sq. km. adjoining the vast expanse of 745·92 Sq. km. of the reservoir of Hirakud Dam. Except for elephants, wild buffaloes and black bucks, most of the other important animals in the State are more or less represented here. The Hirakud Dam water spread into these forests will have much influence on the ecology of many parts of the forests favourable to wild life management. It will further attract numerous water birds both native and migratory. This area is approachable from Bargarh, on National Highway No. 6, wherefrom it is only 30 km. Inside, there are a number of good forest roads. There is a 2nd Class well furnished Rest House at Dechua, a 3rd Class two-roomed, one at Khajuria and one-roomed rest shed at Mundkati within the sanctuary. With better protection the interesting wild life in the sanctuary will provide added attraction to the Hirakud Dam and visitors from the adjacent industrial cities of future. The sanctuary will be under the Divisional Forest Officer, Sambalpur.

(iii) Sardhapali

The Sardhapali sanctuary covers Ghichamura-Phuljhar Block of Sambalpur Forest Division over an area of 29·78 Sq. km. It is about 48 km. from Sambalpur via Rengali. There is a one roomed Forest Rest-Shed at Sardhapali. The important animals of this Block are Sambar, barking deer, pig and leopard. Due to proximity to habitation, the fauna have been sadly depleted in recent years.

17. Fish

Fish of different varieties are found in big rivers like the Mahanadi and Brahmani. The Hirakud reservoir offers great scope for pisciculture. Fish-rearing also is taken up by the Grama Panchayats in small tanks. A detailed account of pisciculture is presented in Chapter IV—Agriculture and Irrigation. Important varieties of fish are : *Catla-catla* (Bhakur), *Labeo rohita* (Rohi), *Cirrhina mrigala* (Mirkali) *Labee kalbasu* (Kalachi), *Wallagoniattu* (Balia), *Pseudegropius garua* (Katrang), *Bagarius bagarius* (Kanabudhia), *Barbus tor* (Kudi), Gabies (Ghesada), *Murels* (Seula), Minor *Murels* (Khapsi), *Rincobdila* (Bainri), *Barbus* minor species (Putia), *Chela Gora* and *Chela phulo* (Jarda), *Barbus* minor species (Kuturi), *Clarias batrachas* (Magur), *Sacobranchus fosilis* (Singhi), *Gobies* (Matul), *Mystus aor* (Adi), *Eutropiichthys vacha* (Batcha), *Belerey hemiramphus* (Gaurchela), *Barbus* minor species (Dandikiri and Dandei), *Ambly pharyngdon* (Mahurali), very minor *Barbus* species (Jhima). Major prawns (Chingda), Minor prawns (Chingda), *Notopterus notopterus* (Phali), Chital, *Barbus serana* (Serna), Minor Crabs (Kankra), *Amphebea : Ketchia* (Thumbi), *Nandus nandus* (Bhadra), *Mungli tadi* (Kainga), Glass fish (Pat Pania).

18. Climate

The climate of this district is characterised by a very hot dry summer and well distributed rains in the south-west monsoon season. The cold season commences from November and lasts till the end of February. The hot season follows thereafter and continues till about the second week of June. The south-west monsoon season is from mid June to the end of September.

I. Rainfall

Records of rainfall are available for 9 stations in the district for periods ranging from 32 to 84 years. The rainfall at these stations and for the district as a whole are given in tables (Appendices II and III). The average annual rainfall in the district is 1,527 mm. (60·11"). The eastern half of the district gets more rain than the western half, the region around Dhama and Sambalpur, getting the highest rainfall. About 90 per cent of the annual rainfall is received in the monsoon

season—July being the rainiest month in the year. The variation in the rainfall from year to year is not large. In the fifty-year period from 1901 to 1950, the annual rainfall was the highest in 1939 and 1943 when it was 128 per cent of the normal in both the years. The lowest annual rainfall which amounted to 74 per cent of the normal occurred in 1912. In the same fifty-year period, the annual rainfall in the district was less than 80 per cent of the normal in five years and two of them were consecutive. It will be seen from table at appendix III that the rainfall in the district was between 1300 and 1800 mm. (51'18" and 70'87") in 34 years out of fifty.

On an average, there are 70 rainy days, i. e., days with rainfall of 2·5 mm,—10 percents or more in a year in the district. This number varies from 61 at Bijepur to 78 at Deogarh. The highest rainfall in 24 hours recorded at any station in the district was 401·5 mm. (15'80") at Sambalpur on 20th July, 1889.

The annual rainfall charts are appended to this Chapter. * They show that rainfall increases as one goes north. It is lowest at Bargarh the average being 1556 mm. It s higher at Sambalpur and Nildungri where the average is 1646 mm. It is highest at Deogarh, 60 miles north of Sambalpur, the average being 1705 mm. It confirms the theory that forests attract rain. Bargarh is a completely de-forested plain. Sambalpur has a number of forested hills all round. Deogarh is in the midst of thickly forested hills.

These annual rainfall charts follow no uniform pattern. Years of heavy rain-fall follow in successions of 2 to 10 years. Similarly years of drought also follow in successions of 3 to 10 years. Sometimes 2 or even 3 years of heavy rainfall comes one after another. It is not so in the case of drought. Successive years of drought are rare.

II. Temperature

There were meteorological observatories at Jharsuguda, and Sambalpur. The records of temperature and other meteorological elements which are available for Sambalpur for a longer period may be taken as representative of the conditions over the district as a whole. The data for Jharsuguda are available only for a few years. Temperature begins to rise from about the beginning of March steadily till May which is usually the hottest month of the year with the mean daily maximum temperature at 41°C (106·9°F). The heat in May and the early part of June prior to the onset of the South-West monsoon is tiring.

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* Mr. John Martin Casey kept records of temperature and rainfall in his sisal plantation at Nildungri from 1927 to 1963. His daughters have presented records to the Gazetters Section for our use.

The onset of the monsoon by about mid-June brings some relief. In between spells of rain the weather becomes hot and oppresive due to the high moisture in the air. In September, due to breaks in the monsoon which are not uncommon the day temperatures increase slightly and this increase continues in October, but the nights become progressively cooler from October. From about the middle of November the day temperatures also begin to drop rapidly and December is usually the coldest month with the mean daily maximum temperature at 26·9°C (80·5°F) and the mean daily minimum temperature at 12·1°C (53·8°F). Cold waves sometimes affect the district in association with the passage of Western disturbances across Northern India in the cold season when the minimum temperature may go down to 4 or 5°C (40°F).

The highest maximum temperature recorded at Sambalpur was 47·2°C (117°F) on 1948 May, 22. The lowest minimum temperature was 4·4°C (40 F) on 1902 December, 5 and 1954 January, 26.

The temperature records show that the highest temperature in May and early June hovers between 114°F. and 117°F It is highest at Sambalpur on account of radiation from the rocks and sand of the bed of the Mahanadi. The construction of the Hirakud Reservoir covering over 300 Sq. miles has made little difference to summer heat. The highest temperature continues to shoot up to 117 F. The only difference it has made is to increase the humidity in the proximity of the lake, making the neighbouring villages suffocating. This is felt particularly at Hirakud, Burla and Belpahar.

III. Humidity

The relative humidities are high during the South-West monsoon season being generally over 75 per cent. After the monsoon season humidity decreases and during the winter season, the air is fairly dry. The driest part of the year is the summer season when the relative humidities are rather low, the afternoon humidities being generally about 25 to 30 per cent.

IV. Cloudiness

Sky is heavily clouded to overcast in the monsoon season. In the latter half of summer and the post-monsoon months the clouding is moderate. In the rest of the year, sky is generally clear or lightly clouded.

V. Winds

Wind is light to moderate generally, with some increase in force in late summer and the South-West monsoon season. In the post-monsoon and winter months, wind is mainly from directions between North and East. In March wind is variable in directions. By April winds from the West and South-West become more common and these predominate during the period May to September

VI. Special weather phenomena.

During the monsoon season, depressions from the Bay of Bengal cross the east coast of India and move in some westernly direction. These cause widespread heavy rain and strong winds. Occasionally storms from the Bay of Bengal in October may also affect the district. Thunderstorms occur throughout the year, their frequency being least in November and December and highest in the monsoon season. Occasional dust-storms and dust-raising winds occur in the summer months.

Appendices IV, V and VI give the temperature and humidity mean wind speed and the frequency of special weather phenomena respectively for Sambalpur.

The radiation from the rock and the sand keeps the temperature high throughout the night. A night drive from Sambalpur town to any of the forest areas such as Mundher or Meghapal gives almost the sensation of going to hill stations.

APPENDIX I

A Day alone in the wild *

(This is the experience of three days put into one)

May 1932 and April 1933, Sambalpur district in Orissa

I left Chamunda alone on foot at 4-30 A. M. having slept the night in the forest bungalow. I took a rifle for protection, but the object was not to shoot. In the dim light preceding dawn I could see enough of the fire line which had been cleared and was meant to stop forest fire spreading. Soon there was enough light for me to see things clearly. Cocks started crowing all-round me. I felt as if I was in a chiken run. Cocks came out, saw me, and hurried back to safety. From a distance of about 15 yards a tiger crossing the fire line, stopped, looked at me, and decided that I was no meal. It walked slowly into the deeper forest. Sunrise was hidden through the trees. But its rays falling on tops of trees in new leaf was enchanting. I came to a clearing of about two acres. The sun had come up about 10°. I stood at the edge of the clearing. A hen came out with her brood, saw me, and went back. A leopard who is always late to seek shelter, came into the open, looked intently at me and decided that this monster was not worth trying. Man with his height looks like a monster to all animals, except perhaps to elephant and to monkeys who perhaps know that he is only a relative. I watched sun shine on fresh Kendu[1] leaves in the bushes and on Sal[2] in flower on top of the canopy against the clear blue sky. It looked glorious. Heaven for an artist. I stood enraptured, for how long I do not know.

I saw nothing on my way back to Chamunda. I had a wash followed by breakfast of shredded wheat in milk and Gur, a quarter boiled egg, bread, butter and Jam, ending with coffee. It was enough to send me back to bed again to sleep. I got up hungry at 9 A. M had a bath in cold water Then a meal of whole wheat Chapati with chicken curry. By 11 A. M. I was ready to start again in Khaki breeches, canvas shoes, and a Khaki shooting shirt consisting of straps and pockets. I filled one pocket with coffee, one pocket with cartridges, hung my 375 Manlicher on my back, carried a flask of cold water in my hand and started prepared for the day. A light flask of water was enough as Amla fruits which I plucked on the way were enough to quench thirst. The sun was hot. I walked through

* From the auto-biography of Shri Nilamani Senapati, published in the Paurusha (Oriya Monthly)—Vol. 2, No. 8

[1] Kendu is a shrub as well as a tree. The shrub produces large leaves in spring which are in great damand for wrapping tobacco for making leaf-cigarette

[2] Sal is a tall stout forest tree. In spring it produces masses of golden flowers on its top branches which set off brilliantly against the clear blue sky. The seed drops with wings circling in the air like an electric fan.

shaded paths, until there was no path, enjoying bird songs coming from top of the canopy of trees. I jumped down into a ravine and walking along it came to a water hole [1]. I climbed the bank and sat astride on the fork of a tree. It was a shady tree. I was saved from the direct sun. About 1 P. M. a tigress came with 3 cubs. They played about in the water like children splashing water in a shallow lake. They stayed for over half an hour and slowly walked away. Immediately came a peacock with its long tail and splashed water on himself. I do not know why a peacock would follow a tiger to water. Nothing happened till sunset when many birds, a hyena, a pair of jackals, a rabbit, a fox and a Kutra (barking deer) came for drink. Then came a number of long tailed monkeys, had their drink and sat on the trees. They saw me but took no notice of the intrusion. As it became darker, came a large number of pigs, tuskers, mother pigs, suckling pigs and non-descript pigs. They wallowed in the pool and must have made it filthy. Breaking the sound of wallowing pigs came the loud whooping of a monkey like the sound of a bulb horn. Immediately the pigs scattered without a grunt and vanished. The monkey warned them that enemy was about. I heard a fierce struggle on the opposite bank of the water-hole. A pig was caught by a tiger and dragged into the forest. Sound came of pulling at flesh. While the tiger was busy at dinner I slipped down the tree and stole away as quietly and as quickly as possible and coming up the ravine nearly started running. There is no reckoning what a tigress with her cubs would do.

A night alone in the wild

Early spring. About the end of February. Sambalpur district—Basiapara, 20 miles from Sambalpur. I was sitting over a cow killed by a tiger. The kill was 20 yards in the open, tied to a bush. I sat on the Machan at 4 P. M. As darkness enveloped the jungle and distant sounds died down. I was left alone to my thoughts—only disturbed occasionally by the call of a lone bird or the barking of a near Kutra which probably saw a tiger. A jackal came and pulled at the carcase. Suddenly it ran away. The tiger was there but not on the kill. I strained my eyes and ears to no effect. If I could hear my breathing, the tiger could probably hear it too and became aware of my presence. The tiger must have been somewhere near, as the jackal never came back. But a hyena came about 11 P.M. I disturbed it by flashing my torch on it and it left. After that the carcase was left untouched and I was left alone. The distant bell of a Sambar showed that the forest was alive. About midnight a bison came and ate leaves from my tree. I could almost touch it. I dozed off and dreamt that a tiger was sitting under my

[1] Water-hole is a pool of water in a dry forest area. As there is no water within a long distance, animals must come to water-hole for a drink. Different animals have different times. They do not clash.

Machan which broke and I was falling. Next morning I saw pug marks right under my Machan. Fortunately the tiger did not try to come up the tree. Or did it? My snoring or nightmare must have scared it.

Sitting alone, the stillness of the night in the forest can be unnerving. I enjoyed it. Thoughts were of creation, struggle for existence, the universe, of eternity, of infinity, of the tiny span of the life of man, of evolution, etc. The night was unending. Thoughts also came back to more mundane matters like my bank balance, my family and what provision I had made, in the event of the tiger getting me. Reality of living came back to me when about 4-30 A. M. the jungle came to life. Dew started dropping from leaf to leaf and birds fluttered their wings on their perches. I also came to life. My thoughts came back to the immediate present. Cocks crowed from far and near. I made my love call, by cupping the palm of my hands. People came and I came down from my Machan. Pug-marks showed that the tiger had come from behind and was right under the Machan.

I have spent over a hundred nights alone in the wild. A disturbing feature was the mosquitoes for which I kept the body covered and had a net for the face and neck. For the hands I had ample supply of mosquito cream.

Life in the wild on a tree was not always enjoyable It had its dangers and discomforts

Sitting on a tree in the forest whether on a fork of the tree or on a Machan can sometimes, but very exceptionally, expose one to snakes. I was sitting on a Machan on a bamboo bush. I found a green snake crawling up It went on to the bar in front of me. Then it stretched across to a culm I had my knife ready With a sharp stroke I cut it in two. Both parts dropped on the ground. I cannot say what happened thereafter. The tail part must have been dead. The head part must have crawled away to live or to die I cannot tell.

A major discomfort can be ants, the large red variety of which can give you quite a sting. The forest folk take good care before they tie Machan, to select a tree with no ants.

Sand-flies in day time and mosquitoes at night are an eternal nuisance. A net tied round the head can protect the eyes from sand-flies and the face and neck from gnats But it interferes with the aiming of the gun. The hunter has to choose between the two

Some times sudden storms cause major disturbance. The day I was on a bamboo bush, I was sitting for tiger. A storm came at 1 A. M. and pushed the whole bush down My Machan which was 12 feet high came down to 4 feet. The tiger came at 4 A. M., saw me and walked away. It was a strange bamboo bush in his experience. I could not shoot because there were many impediments to the manipulation of the rifle.

APPENDIX

Normals and extremes

Station	No. of years of data		Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.
1	2		3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Sambalpur ..	50	a	16.3	26·9	18·5	15·0	25·1	238·3	498·3	494·5
		b	1·0	2·3	1·5	1·5	2·2	10·4	19·3	19·0
Bargarh ..	50	a	15·5	25·1	17·5	18·3	25·1	224·0	430·8	421·6
		b	1·1	2·0	1·5	1·5	2·1	10·3	17·5	16·4
Padampur ..	48	a	13·7	23·4	19·3	23·4	29·0	192·3	360·9	370·8
		b	0·7	1·7	1·7	2·0	1·9	9·8	15·8	15·7
Jharsuguda ..	31	a	12·2	28·5	17·3	12·5	31·7	225·0	532·9	435·
		b	0·7	2·0	1·3	1·4	2·5	10·0	20·4	17·9
Dhama ..	31	a	11·9	24·6	12·2	14·5	30·5	220·5	537·5	477·8
		b	0·8	2·1	1·4	1·2	2·1	9·5	19·3	18·7
Ambabhona ..	32	a	15·2	23·3	18·5	15·0	21·8	202·4	527·8	461·5
		b	1·1	1·7	1·7	1·2	1·8	9·6	19·9	17·9
Bijepur ..	31	a	9·4	17·0	12·5	16·5	23·6	183·6	399·5	376·9
		b	0·5	1·4	1·3	1·3	1·8	8·5	16·9	14·9
Deogarh ..	49	a	17·5	28·5	17·5	23·9	54·4	241·8	462·8	412·0
		b	1·0	1·8	1·2	1·7	3·8	11·0	19·0	18·0
Rampur ..	49	a	16·8	23·4	14·7	19·1	37·3	240·0	476·0	427·2
		b	0·9	1·7	1·4	1·4	2·8	10·4	19·5	18·5
Sambalpur district ..		a	14·3	24·4	16·4	17·6	30·9	218·7	469·6	430·9
		b	0·9	1·9	1·4	1·5	2·3	9·9	18·6	17·5

(*a*) Normal rainfall
(*b*) Average number of rainy days
* Based on all available data
**Years given

II

of Rainfall

Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual	Highest annual rainfall as per cent of normal and year*	Lowest annual rainfall as per cent of normal and year**	Heaviest rainfall in 24 hours	
							Amount	Date
11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
227·1	57·9	12·7	3·8	1,634·4	141(1919)	57(1915)	401·33	1889 July 20
11·4	3·6	0·9	0·4	73·5	..	..	..	..
214·4	46·0	8·4	3·1	1,449·8	146(1929)	65(1923)	249·2	1892 July 23
10·8	3·1	0·8	0·3	67·4	..	..	..	..
214·6	56·6	14·5	2·8	1,321·3	160(1933)	63(1923)	368·3	1939 Sept. 7
10·0	3·4	0·9	0·3	63·9	..	..	..	..
231·4	68·6	19·6	3·3	1,618·3	138(1929)	67(1929)]	350·0	1925 June 29
11·9	3·5	1·2	0·4	73·2	..	..	..	..
230·9	56·4	15·2	2·8	1,634·3	129(1939)	52(1921)	266·9	1920 Aug. 26
11·7	3·5	1·0	0·2	71·5	..	..	..	..
223·8	16·2	20·1	2·3	1,576·9	140(1936)	63(1948)	264·2	1937 June 27
10·9	3·0	1·0	0·1	69·9	..	..	..	..
213·6	42·9	15·2	3·3	1,314·0	146(1936)	75(192[illegible])	228·6	1941 Aug. 9
9·9	2·9	1·0	0·3	60·7	..	..	..	..
225·8	107·0	12·9	5·3	1,610·1	131(1903)	61(1923)	330·2	1943 Aug. 1
13·1	5·8	1·2	0·4	78·4	..	..	..	..
236·7	72·4	13·7	5·3	1,582·6	159(1925)	64(1912)	330·2	1950 Aug. [illegible]
12·2	4·1	1·0	0·3	74·2	..	..	..	..
224·3	61·6	14·7	3·6	1,527·0	128(1943)	74(1922)	..	..
11·3	3·7	1·0	0·3	70·3	..	..	.	

in mm.

(days with 2·5 mm. or more)

up to 1950

in brackets.

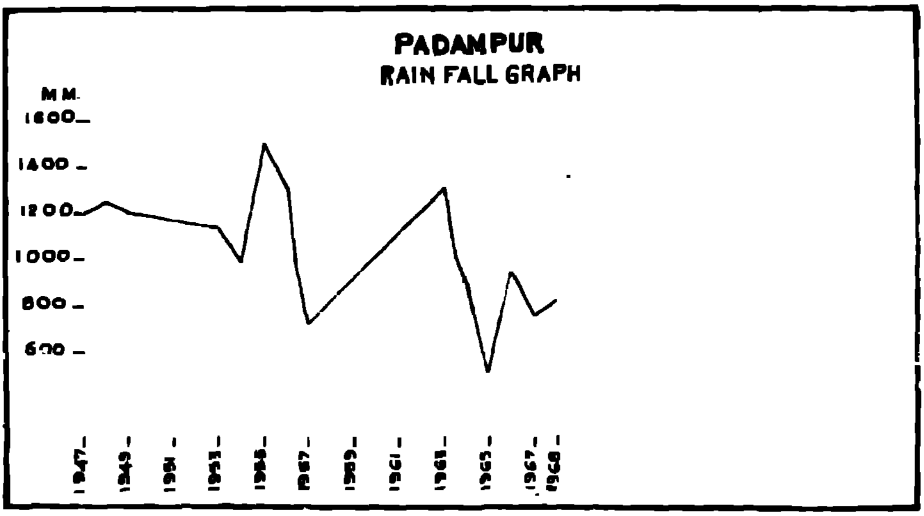
APPENDIX III

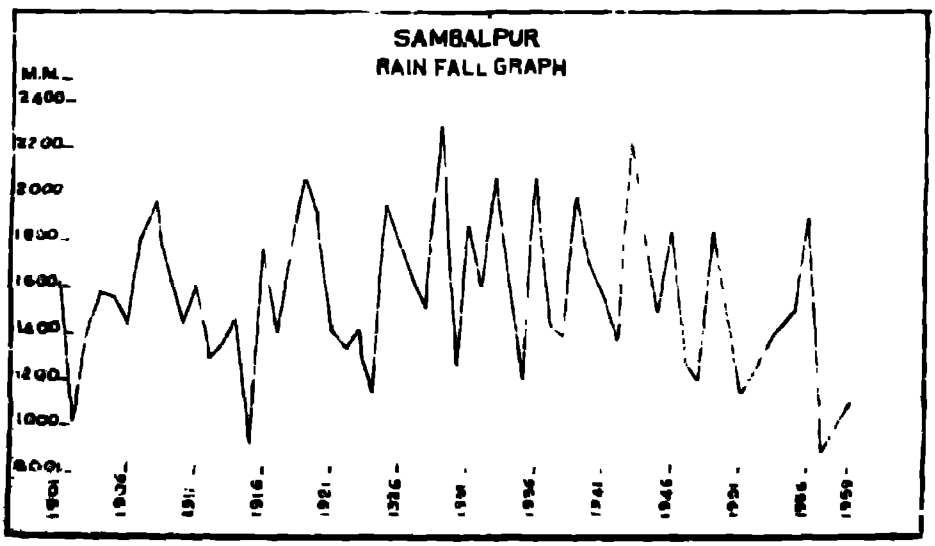
Frequency of Annual Rainfall in the District

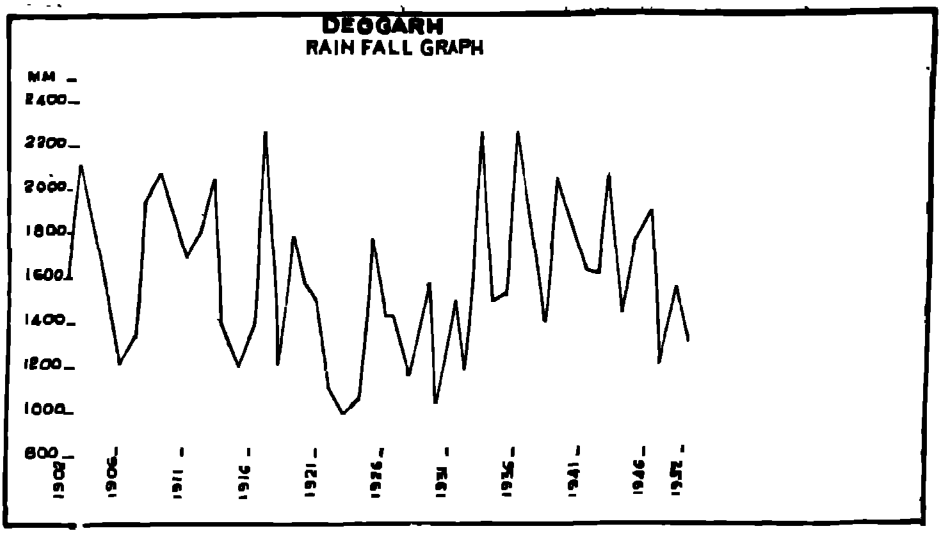
(Data 1901—1950)

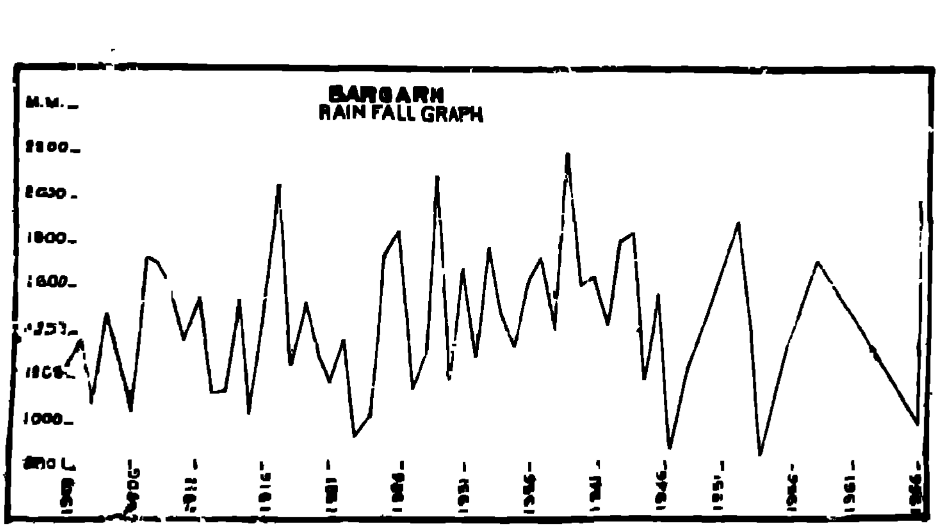
Range in mm.	No. of years	Range in mm.	No. of years
1101—1200 ..	4	1601—1700	6
1201—1300 ..	3	1701—1800	4
1301—1400 ..	7	1801—1900	6
1401—1500 ..	7	1901—2000	3
1501—1600 ..	10	..	..

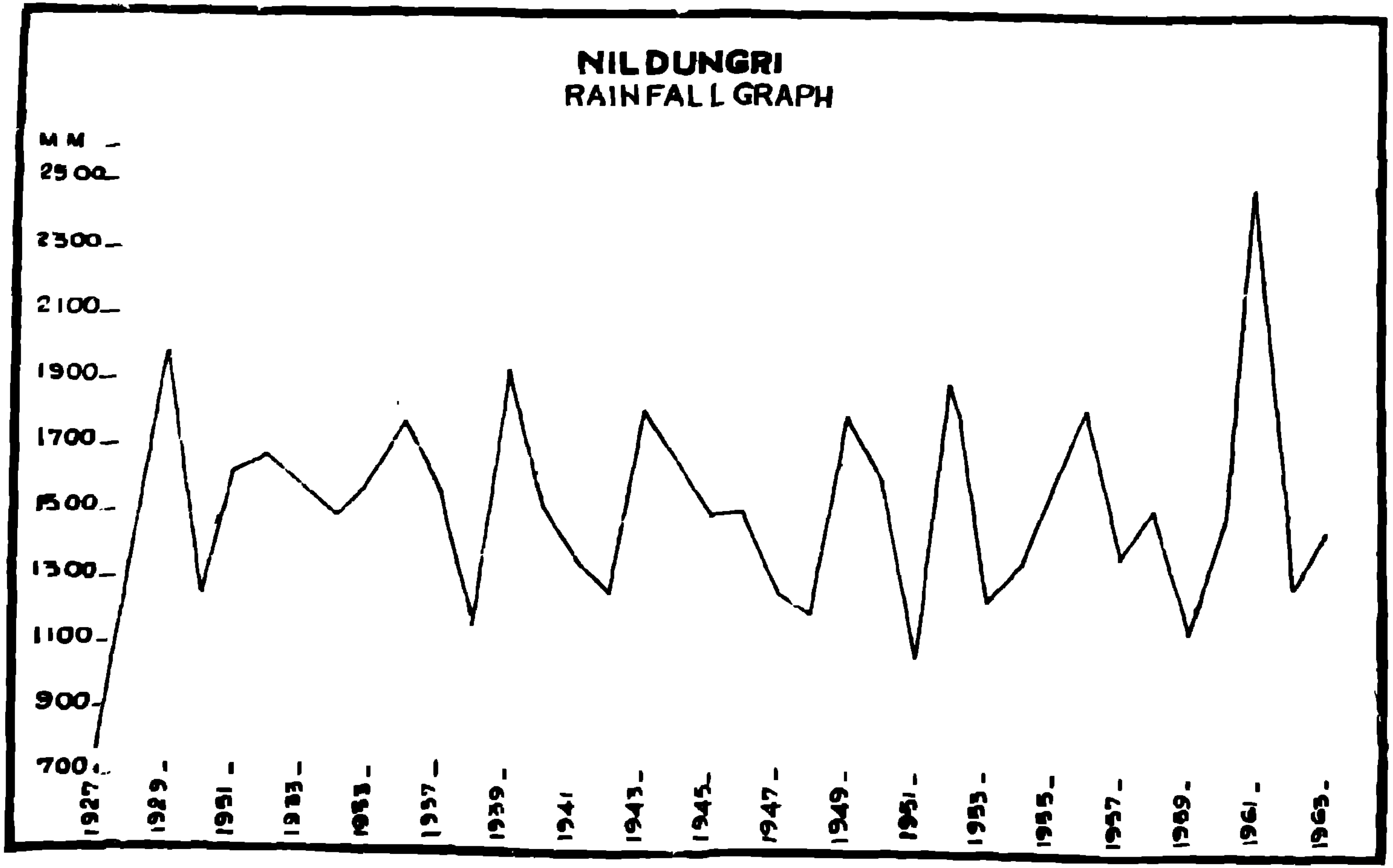
RAINFALL GRAPHS






DEOGARH
RAIN FALL GRAPH
MM
2400
2200
2000
1800
1600
1400
1200
1000
800
1902
1906
1911
1916
1921
1926
1931
1936
1941
1946
1951


BARGARH
RAIN FALL GRAPH
M.M.
1800
1000


NIL DUNGRI
RAINFALL GRAPH
MM
2500
2300
2100
1900
1700
1500
1300
1100
900
700
1927
1929
1931
1933
1935
1937
1939
1941
1943
1945
1947
1949
1951
1953
1955
1957
1959
1961
1963

APPENDIX IV

Normals of Temperature and Relative Humidity (Sambalpur)

Month		Mean Daily maximum temperature	Mean Daily minimum temperature	Highest Maximum ever recorded			Lowest Minimum ever recorded			Ralative Humidity	
										0830	1730
		0C	0C	0C	Date		0C	Date		%	%
January	..	27.7	12.8	33.9	1889	Jan. 30	4.4	1954	Jan. 26	72	44
February	..	30.2	15.1	37.8	1896	Feb. 28	5.6	1950	Feb. 13	66	39
March	..	35.4	19.2	43.3	1888	Mar. 23	11.1	1954	Mar. 8	52	30
April	..	39.4	23.8	45.6	1942	Apr. 30	14.4	1905	Apr. 2	49	25
May	..	41.6	27.4	72.2	1948	May 22	20.6	1951	May 3	49	28
June	.	36.5	26.9	46.7	1955	June 6	19.4	1903	June 28	67	59
July	..	30.7	25.1	40.6	1902	July 1	18.3	1910	July 1	85	85
August	..	30.4	24.9	35.0	1954	Aug. 2	21.1	1956	Aug. 9	85	83
September	..	31.5	24.9	36.1	1930	Sept. 30	20.6	1921	Sept. 29	82	78
October	..	31.5	21.9	36.1	1920	Oct. 17	12.8	1921	Oct. 31	77	66
November	..	28.9	16.3	33.9	1946	Nov. 13	7.8	1926	Nov. 30	73	56
December	...	26.9	12.1	32.2	1902	Dec. 19	4.4	1902	Dec. 5	74	49
Annual	..	32.6	20.9		..			..		69	53

* Hours I. S. T.

APPENDIX V

Mean wind speed in Km./Hr.

SAMBALPUR

January	February	March	April	May	June	July
3·4	3·9	4·2	4·8	5·8	6·8	6·8

August	September	October	November	December	Annual
6·1	4·7	3·7	3·4	3·1	4·7

APPENDIX VI

Special Weather Phenomena

SAMBALPUR

Mean No. of days with	January	February	March	April	May	June
Thunder ..	2·2	3·0	4·4	4·9	7·9	15·1
Hail ..	0·	0·1	0·1	0·2	0·	0·
Duststorm	0·	0·	0·	0·4	0·6	0·7
Squall ..	0·4	0·	0·4	0·3	0·9	0·3
Fog ..	0·2	0·	0·4	0·	0·	0·

Mean No. of days with	July	August	September	October	November	December	Annual
Thunder	15·2	14·7	16·4	5·1	0·2	0·2	89·3
Hail	0·	0·	0·	0·	0·	0·	0·6
Duststorm	0·	0·	0·	0·	0·	0·	1·7
Squall	0·1	0·	0·	0·	0·	0·	2·4
Fog	0·	0·	0·	0·1	0·	0·	0·9

CHAPTER II

HISTORY

19. Pre-History and Proto-History

In 1876, V. Ball discovered four stone implements of palaeolithic type in Orissa, three of which were from the present Dhenkanal district and the remaining one from the district of Sambalpur[1]. He described the Sambalpur implement as follows: "This specimen was found near Bursapali to the north of the well-known village of Kudderbuga. It has a pointed wedge shape. The material is a vitreous quartzite". The implement described by Ball is a hand-axe of the Deccan type, displaying crude technique. By it one can dig, cut and chop; kill animals and scrape the skins. It was a tool of the early stone age (palaeolithic age) which was a period of technical non-specialisation and it was probably popular at the time when different types of tools to suit specialised purposes were not invented. Nothing more can, however, be said as after discovery of this early stone tool no further survey has been made in this district. A part of the area where the stone implement was found by Ball is now submerged by the Hirakud water reservoir.

At the village Lasa in Kuchinda subdivision two implements of polished stone celt type have been discovered. These implements signify a change in the life of the pre-historic man from that revealed by the Kudderbuga (Kudabaga) specimen. The polished stone celt culture is that of a primitive technological specialisation and as during that period man no longer depended on nature for food and became himself a food producer. It marks the beginning of a new age. Judging from the finds of the polished stone celts in different parts of Orissa it may be said that these implements continued to be in vogue throug. proto-historic up to the historic period. The Kuchinda type of implement has been found in the excavation at Jauguda in Ganjam district.

A very important proto-historic relic in this district is found in the pictographic writing in a cave called Vikramkhol about 16 miles to the west of Jharsuguda Railway Junction. The rock-shelter containing the relic is of rough sandstone and is 115 feet in length and 27 feet 7 inches in height from the floor. The inscribed portion is about 35 feet. by 7 feet. Swami Jnanananda, an educated Sadhu, discovered the inscription and Dr. K. P. Jayaswal, who thoroughly examined it, remarked as follows*: "The characters in Vikramkhol inscription belong to a period intermediary between the script of Mohenzodaro and Brahmi. Some letters still retain their original or proto-Brahmi

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1. V. Ball, Proceedings of Asiatic Society of Bengal, 1876, pp. 122-23. The Orissa specimens are now in the Indian Museum, Calcutta. Ball's account on diamonds etc. in Sambalpur district is given as Appendix I.

* The Indian Antiquary, Vol. LXII, 1933. PP. 58—60

forms. This proves the origin of Brahmi to be Indian and throws a flood of light on the history of writing, as from Brahmi the Phoenician and European scripts are derived".

It is evident from the inscription that all the letters were first painted before being incised. The writing seems to be from right to left. There is an animal figure which is probably not a part of the writing, but a symbol. The writing seems to have reached the syllabary (alphabetic) stage. It is certainly, as Dr. Jayaswal concludes, earlier than the earliest specimen of Brahmi known so far. The Vikramkhol record, however, "need not necessarily be an Aryan piece of writing."

Buddhistic Influence—

In the first half of the 8th century A.D. Padmasambhava, son or adopted son of Indrabhuti, king of Sambhal in Uddiyana, founded Lamaism in Tibet. According to Dr. Nabin Kumar Sahu, whose note is Appendix III to this chapter, Uddiyana was what is known as modern Orissa and Sambhal was Sambalpur of today. But James Hastings in his Encyclopedia of Religion and Ethics (Vol.7, page 785) has placed Uddiyana in the Swat valley near Peshawar. This is accepted by Dr. B. C. Law in "Histroical Geograhpy of Ancient India" (page 132). Dr. Nabin Kumar Sahu has, however, given detailed reasons for this in his book "Buddhism in Orissa" (pp.143—153 and 166—168). He is the first to initiate a controversy over the identification of Uddiyana and Sambhal. Historians have yet to debate and decide the issue. If Sambalpur in early 8th century was a seat of Buddhism evidence has to be looked for, which may be found at Melchhamunda (Ganiapali) where there appears to be what might be the ruins of an ancient stupa and the Gandhamardan hill has to be searched for ancient Buddhistic relics. There is, however, sufficient indication to show that Sambalpur region was a seat of Tantrism which led to the establishment of a Tantrik site at the present Patnagarh which till a few years ago was also called Kuari Patna or Kumari Patna which means the seat of maidens—*vide* Gazetteer of Balangir district, page 489. Investigation has also yet to be made of relics which exist in or near Sonepur and Ranipur-Jharial in Bolangir district.

10. Archaeology

(i) Temples

The important historical relics in the district of Sambalpur are the temples built by the Chauhan rulers. They were not only devoted to Hindu Gods and Goddesses but also accepted the local deities for whom many temples were built in different parts of the district. The splendour of Orissan art and architecture has reached its climax in the 13th century much before the advent of the Chauhans into Sambalpur region. The Chauhan monuments, no doubt, got impetus from Orissan architectural style. The Orissan temple architecture by reason of its long history of evolution has been sometimes classed as a type

itself. It is generally known as the 'Kalinga' style of architecture. But in consideration of its curvilinear spires and square plans with projected angles, it can be taken as sub-class of Nagara style rather than a class by itself. Another regional manifestation of the Nagara temple style is found in the majestic temples at Khajuraho in Bundelkhand. The architectural design of some of the temples of the Chauhans closely imitates the style of the Khajuraho group of temples. Temples of this type are mostly found in the town of Sambalpur. In the Vaishnava temples of Chauhan a distinct influence of the Orissan type is found. But some Siva temples built during the period exhibit a strange synthesis of both the styles noted above. The images of Gods and Goddesses occupying prominent places in these temples as the semi-divine human and animal figures used as decorative motifs reveal exquisite beauty of execution.

The earliest surviving Vaishnava monument of the Chauhans is the temple of Narsinghnath on the western side of Gandhamardan hill. It was built in 1413 A. D. by Vaijal Deva I, the fourth Chauhan ruler of Patna. It has been dedicated to Lord Narasimha in his feline incarnation (Marjara Kesari). The image of Marjara Kesari of black chlorite stone having the head of a cat and body of a lion is the presiding deity of the sanctum. The temple consists of the Vimana and a Jagamohan. There are large number of shrines of Lord Jagannath in this district. The important ones are the Brahmapura Jagannath temple built by Raja Balabhadra Sai, Kutha Jagannath and Bara Jagannath temples built by Bansigopal, son of Maharaja Madhukar Sai, and the Jagannath temple of Barpali built by Zamindar Hrudaya Singh. Each of these temples consists of a Vimana, a large Mohana, a Natamandap and a Garuda pillar in the front but there is no Bhogamandapa. Another prominent temple at Sambalpur and only one of its kind in the Chauhan territory is the Ananta-Sajya temple. It consists of the Vimana, a pillared porch and a Garuda Stambha in front. It is said to have been built by Balaramadev, the first Chauhan ruler of Sambalpur. The image of the Anantasayi Vishnu enshrined in the temple was brought from Surguja by his queen who was the daughter of the Raja of Surguja. This temple was renovated later by Banshi Gopal.

The Samalai temple in the town of Sambalpur and that in village Barpali represent the finest Chauhan style of circumbulation round the sanctum and a pillared hall in the front constituting the porch. The main temple is slender in shape and is decorated with miniature temple designs on all sides from top to bottom. In between the sanctum and the audience hall, there is an open air courtyard which admits light and air into the sanctum. The length and breadth of the sanctum is 22 feet by 22 feet with a 6 feet wide verandah in the back and on two sides for *Parikrama* (go-round) purposes. The image of Samalai is a unique sculpture and appears to be a primitive deity, worshipped by the local people.

Beglar describes the deity as "a large block of stone in the middle of which is a projection resembling the mouth of a cow. The extremity of this projection has a groove of a thread-breadth which is called the mouth. At both sides of this projection there are depressions over which beaten gold-leaf is placed as a substitute for eyes"[1]. This local deity was accepted as the family goddess of the Chauhans of Sambalpur during the rule of Balaram Dev, the first Chauhan ruler of Sambalpur. The Patneswari temple of Sambalpur was built by Balaram Dev in the last part of the 16th century. It consists of a sanctum with an enclosed circular court. The Patnoswari deity in the temple of Sambalpur is goddess Kali.

In the district of Sambalpur a large number of Siva temples were built during the Chauhan period. The most important among them were those of the Asta-Sambhus such as (1) Bimaleswar of Huma, (2) Kedarnath of Ambabhona, (3) Viswanath of Deogaon, (4) Balunkeswar of Gaisama, (5) Maneswar of Sambalpur, (6) Swapneswar of Sorna, (7) Visweswar of Soranda and (8) Nilakantheswar of Niljee. The Bimaleswar Siva temple at Huma on the Mahanadi which is at present found in leaning condition was built by Maharaja Baliar Singh. The rest of the temples were constructed during the reign of Ajit Singh and his son Abhaya Singh. These temples, though small in height, are of great artistic beauty and each of these with picturesque background.

The Chauhan rulers of Sambalpur were great patrons of Hinduism. They built temples to Hindu Gods and Goddesses, made extensive grants to Brahmins, gave high position to them and even handed over temporal power to the Head of the family of high priests during the Dasahara festival. A member of this family has given a note which is Appendix II.

(ii) Inscriptions

A few copper plates have so far been discovered from the district. The earliest available one is the Kudopali copper plate grant[2] dated in the 13th regnal year of Mahabhavagupta, a Somavamsi monarch of 10-11th century A. D. The grant was issued by the feudatory chief Punja recording the donation of the village Loisara in favour of Brahmana Narayan, son of Janardana belonging to Kaundirya gotra. Another important copper plate grant was found from Banda, a village in the Bargarh subdivision of Sambalpur district[3]. The charter was issued from Vagharakotta by Ranaka Parachakrasalya who was son of Dhvamsaka and grandson of Mahamandalesvara Mahamandalika Ranaka Chamaravigraha. Parachakrasalya claimed to have belonged to the Rashtrakuta royal family. He was ruling in the Sambalpur area

1. Alexandar Cunningham (ed), Archaeological Survey Report, Vol. XVII, 1884 P. 61.
2. Inscriptions of Orissa, Vol. IV, pp. 237—41.
3. Inscriptions of Orissa, Vol. XXX, pp. 135—40,

of Orissa far away from the original home of his fore-fathers in the Kannada region. This inscription proves for the first time the existence of a line of Rashtrakuta rulers in Sambalpur region of Orissa in 12th century A. D. The said copper plate was issued on November 20, 1130 A. D.[1]

The earliest Chauhan inscription available in the district is the Narsinhnath temple inscription of Raja Vaijal Dev I. The date of this inscription is March 14, 1413 A D.[2]. It records donation of the village Loisingha and one hundred cows to the service of the deity. The script is proto-Oriya.

In the village Themra in Sambalpur subdivision of the district two copper plate grants, issued by Maharaja Jayanta Singh and his chief queen Rajyeswari Ratna Kumari, have been brought to light. Both are written in Sanskrit language and in Oriya script. The first plate records donation of the village Sodanga to one Divyasimha Misra on the occasion of a lunar eclipse in Samvat 1847. The second plate records that Ratna Kumari granted Themra village to Divyasimha Misra on the 3rd day of the bright fortnight of Vaisakha in Samvat 1861 corresponding to 1803 A. D. The Bargarh copper plate grant of Maharaja Narayan Singh was issued on the 7th day of bright fortnight in the month of Margasira in Samvat 1901 which corresponds to 1843 A.D. It records donation of Bargarh in favour of two brothers Narayan Das Gaunti and Krushna Das Gauntia, the sons of Baluki Das who laid down his life in the service of the Maharaja.

21. Early History

The present district of Sambalpur was in ancient times a part of South Kosala. This territory roughly comprised the modern districts of Raipur and Bilaspur in Madhya Pradesh and the districts of Sambalpur, Balangir and Sundargarh of Orissa. The Aranyaka Parva of the Mahabharata describes a few places of pilgrimage of Kosala, viz. Rishabha Tirtha and Kala Tirtha which can be identified in this region [3]. It has been pointed out in the History Chapter of Balangir District Gazetteer that the present district of Balangir which constituted the ancient Taitilaka Janapada was a part of the empire of Mahapadmananda in the 4th century B. C. The references to this territory by the Grammarian Panini and the finds of punch marked coins attributed to the Pre-Maurya period suggest possibility of inclusion of that kingdom in the empire of Mahapadmananda. Very likely the Sambalpur region also was included in that empire by that time. There is, however, no

1. Ibid, P. 136.
2. Indian Historical Quaterly, Vol. XII, PP. 485 ff.
3. Quoted in Siba Prasad Das, *History of Sambalpur*, P. 89.

"କୋଶଳାୟାଂ..............

.... କାଳତୀର୍ଥମୁପସ୍ପୃଶେତ"

(ମହାଭାରତ, ବନପର୍ବ, ୮୪ ଅଧ୍ୟାୟ)

evidence to show that after the fall of Mahapadmananda the Maurya kings took possession of the Kosala region and the edicts of Asoka throw no light on the history of this territory.

The Malavikagni-mitram, a historical drama, attributed to the great poet Kalidasa, throws light on the history of Vidarbha during the post-Maurya period and according to some scholars Vidarbha was the same as South Kosala. But the Mahabharata distinguishes these two territories which were, however, then contiguous to one another. The epic represents Nala in the Vindhyan forest as pointing out his wife Damayanti the way to Vidarbha, her father's country, in the following words. "This way leads to Vidarbha, the other one to Kosala and to the south lies the country to Dakshinapatha". This shows that Kosala and Vidarbha were distinct territories in ancient times. During the post-Maurya period South Kosala appears to be under the rule of the Chedi kings and it was sometimes known as the Chedi Rashtra. It was from this territory that the ancestor of Kharavela came to Kalinga and founded a new kingdom which under Kharavela became most powerful in the then India. South Kosala very likely formed a part of Kharavela's empire. After Kharavela, the kings of Megha dynasty ruled over Kosala and these Megha kings are supposed to have belonged to the same Meghavahana family as of Kharavela. The Puranas speak of nine Megha kings[1] who ruled over Kosala during the Pre-Gupta period. It may be mentioned here that the town of Sambalpur is of ancient origin. In his classical work on 'Geography' in the second century A. D., Ptolemy noticed a town known as 'Sambalaka' in the territories of Mandalai. This can be identified with the modern town of Sambalpur [2].

About the middle of the 4th century A. D. a king named Mahendra was ruling over South Kosala. It is known from the Allahabad inscription that Samudra Gupta, king of Magadha, defeated king Mahendra of Kosala, as well as, Mantaraja and Vyaghraraja who were the rulers of Korala and Mahakantara respectively. Kosala by that time is said to have comprised the present districts of Raipur, Bilaspur and Sambalpur, and a part of Balangir constituted the kingdom of Korala, while Mahakantara extended over the modern Kalahandi-Koraput region. South Kosala was probably not annexed to the Gupta empire, but it remained without doubt within the spheres of Gupta influence as known from the use of Gupta coin types as well as of Gupta era, by the later rulers of that kingdom.

A copper plate discovered at Arang and dated in the Gupta year of 282, i. e., 602 A. D. reveals the rule of six generations of king over Kosala and these kings are attributed to the period after king

1. F. E. Pargiter, *The Purana Text of the Dynasties in the Kali Age*, p. 51 (London).

2. Surendranath Majumdar (Ed.), Mandalai in Ancient India as described by Ptolemy, p. 169.

Mahendra mentioned above. The Arang plate states that these king belong to a family known as Rajarsitulyakula. The earliest ruler of this family was Maharaja Sura who was succeeded by his son Maharaja Bibhisana. After Bibhisana his son Maharaj Bhimasena I ruled the kingdom and was succeeded by his son Maharaj Dayita Verman II whose son and successor Maharaj Bhimasena II issued the Arang plate on the bank of Subarna Nadi identified with the Son river, a tributary of the Tel river.

22. The Sarabhapuriyas

Another ruling family named Sarabhapuriya having their capital at Sarabhapura came into prominence in Kosala in the 6th century A. D. Sarabhapura has been identified by some scholars with Saraphagarh in the district of Sundargarh but modern researches indicate that it was somewhere located near the modern town Sirpur in Raipur district.[1] The founder of the dynasty was king Sarabha who is identified with Sarabharaja mentioned in the Eran Pillar Inscription of the Gupta year 191 or 510-11 A. D. The son of Sarabha was Maharaj Narendra who extended the territory to a considerable extent. An important ruler of this family was Prasannamatra who issued the gold coins and founded a town called Prasannapura. His son Jayaraja, also called Mahajayaraja ruled for four years[2]. He was probably succeeded by his brother Manamatra also called Mahadurgaraja. King Jayaraja had two sons who ruled one after the other. They were named Pravararaja and Vyaghraraja. After the rule of these two kings, two sons of Manamatra named Sudevaraja and Pravararaja II are said to rule one after the other. A large number of copper plate grants issued by king Sudevaraja have come to light and from those it is known that the Nawapara subdivision of Kalahandi district as well as part of Sambalpur district was included in the Sarabhapura empire. Pravararaja II was the last ruler of this line and during his rule the capital was located at Sripura or modern Sirpur. After his death the empire passed to the hands of the Panduvamsi king Tivaradeva sometime in the 7th century A. D.

23. The Panduvamsis

The Panduvamsis trace their pedigree to Udayana, a petty chief in Central India. He was the great grandfather of Tivaradeva, According to one Sirpur inscription Udayana was succeeded by his son Indravala and the latter by his son Nannadeva. Nannadeva's son Tivaradeva got possession of Dakshinakosala and called himself 'Sakala kosaladhipati'. The Rajim and Bolada copper plate grants issued by him in his 7th and 9th regnal year respectively are available to us[3]. A recently discovered record attributed to his son Nannadeva II reveals

1. Other places indentified with Sarabhapur are Sambalpur and Sarangarh vide R. C. Majumdar and A. S. Altekar, *The Vakataka Gupta Age*, p. 86 (Delhi, 1960).

2. N. K. Sahu (Ed.), *A History of Orissa*, Vol. II, p. 613 (Calcutta, 1956)

3. Mahakosala Historical Society's Papers, Vol. II, p. 21

that Tivaradeva extended his conquest towards east and took possession of Utkal. He was an ambitious monarch and cherished strong desire to occupy Kangoda then comprising parts of Ganjam and Puri districts. He got an opportunity in the civil war that took place in the kingdom of Kangoda where two brothers Dharmaraja and Madhava were fighting for succession to the throne. Tivaradeva espoused the cause of Madhava, but Dharmaraja succeeded in defeating the combined strength of Madhava and Tivaradeva. This defeat checked the ambition of Tivaradeva and subsequently he had to retreat even from Utkala. But he could maintain the Kosala portion of his empire intact and the present district of Sambalpur was very likely a part of that empire.

Tivaradeva was succeeded by his brother Chandragupta and the latter by his son Harshagupta. This king married Vasata, the daughter of king Suryavaraman, ruler of Magadha. He is sometimes identified with the Maukhari prince Suryavarman known from the Haraha inscription dated in Sambat 611, i.e., 555 A.D. But as Harshagupta is ascribed to the 8th century A. D. his father-in-law cannot be placed as early as 555 A. D. Moreover the Maukhari prince is not known from any source to be a king of Magadha. After Harshagupta, his son Mahasivagupta Balarjuna came to the throne. His Lodhia copper plate grant was issued in the 57th regnal year. So he may be said to have ruled for long years. Either Mahasivagupta Balarjuna or his successor Mahabhavagupta Janamejaya was driven out of Sripura region by the Kalachuris.

24. The Somavamsis

Towards the last decades of the 9th century, king Janamejaya I Mahabhavagupta (C. A. D. 882—922)[1] consolidated the eastern part of Kosala comprising the modern Sambalpur and Balangir districts under his sceptre and from his time onwards the dynasty is popularly known as the Somavamsis. He attempted to expand his territory further to the east and south and carved out a powerful kingdom by his own valour. He declared himself as the lord of Trikalinga. The Kalachuris were also defeated by king Janamejaya known as Svabhavatunga in some Somavamsi records. He reigned for a long period of over thirty-four years. During his long reign king Janamejaya also established matrimonial relationship with the Bhauma-Kara dynasty ruling over the coastal tract of modern Orissa. From the Baud Plate of Prithvi Mahadevi *alias* Tribhuvana Mahadevi III it becomes obvious that Svabhavatunga was the father of the Bhauma queen. In the Brahmesvara Inscription of Uddyota-Kesari Mahabhavagupta, it is stated that Janamejaya, the founder of the Somavansi dynasty, "drew to himself the fortune of the king of the Udra country who was killed by

1. K. C. Panigrahi, *Chronology of the Bhauma-Karas and the Somavamsis of Orissa* p. 17.

his kunta in a battle "[1]. It is very probable that Janamejaya intervened in a disrupted succession of the Bhauma-Kara dynasty and successfully championed the cause of his daughter, Prithvi Mahadevi. By raising his daughter to the Bhauma-Kara throne, Janamejaya, the king of Kosala, paved the way for the occupation of Orissa by the Somavamsis.

King Janamejaya was succeeded by his son Yayati I Mahasivagupta I (922--955 A. D.). He founded the capital Yayati-nagar on the bank of the river Mahanadi which some scholars identify with modern Jagati, seven miles to the west of Baudh. In the 9th year of the reign he granted the village Chandgrama in the Marada-visaya of Dakshina-Tosali (South Orissa) [2]. From this evidence it appears, Yayati I occupied Orissa in about his sixth regnal year which roughly corresponds to the Bhauma year 195 (931 A. D.). But before occupying the coastal tract, he must have subdued the Bhanjas who were ruling over the territories lying between Kosala and Utkala. One of his copper plate grants mentions that he donated a village in the mandala of Gandhatapati in his thirteenth regnal year [3]. It is identified as the village Gandharadi situated at a distance of about 12 miles from Baudh. It is evident, therefore, the Bhanjas were ousted before the grant of the above-mentioned copper plate in their territories. Probably this powerful ruler Yayati I built another capital in Utkala known as Abhinava Yayatinagara and according to tradition he performed the Asvamedha sacrifice at Yayatinagara (modern Jajpur) to which ten thousand Brahmins were invited from Kanauj. Then Yayati I united Kosala and Utkala and carved out a vast kingdom for his Somavamsi successors.

Yayati I was succeeded by his son Bhimaratha Mahabhavagupta II (C. 955—980 A. D.) about whom nothing is known. But probably he came into conflict with the Kalachuris who successfully checked the expansion of the Somavamsi kingdom towards the north-west of Kosala. It is also probable that the Somavamsi kings for sometime ruled their vast kingdom from Yayatinagar in Kosala and Abinava Yayatinagar was their second headquarters; the position was, of course, reversed towards the later part of the Somavamsi period. Nothing is also known of Dharmaratha (C. 980—1005 A. D.) and Nahusa (C. 1005—1021 A. D.) except that some contemporary powers invaded the Somavamsi kingdom in the reign of the latter.

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1. *Ibid*, p. 6

2. Epigraphia Indica, Vol. III, p. 352

3. Epigraphia Indica Vol. XI, pp. 96—97

In the first quarter of the 11th century, Rajendra Chola invaded both Utkala and Kosala. The Tirumalai Inscription of Rajendra Chola states that he "captured Indraratha of the ancient race of the moon together with (his) family in a fight which took place at Adinagara, a city whose great fame knew no decline" [1]. It is generally believed that Indraratha was defeated in about 1021 A. D. at Yayatinagara during the victorious march of Rajendra Chola up to the Ganges. Of course, Rajendra Chola also proceeded to Kosala before reaching his destination in the east. Perhaps this deviation occurred due to the fact that Orissa had a subordinate ruler at Yayatinagar and it was necessary to defeat the overlord of Kosala Utkala for a safe passage and final victory [2]. This theory is now corroborated to a great extent by the discovery of a new Somavamsi copper plate of Indraratha from Banpur [3]. Of course, the exact relationship of Indraratha with Dharmaratha or Nahusa is difficult to be ascertained. But he can be placed as a subordinate ruler of his overlord of Kosala and was probably the contemporary of Nahusa. The latter was not an able ruler and perhaps he did not oppose the invading army at all. The Chola record, therefore, states that in "good Kasalai Nadu" only the Brahmins assembled.

The Chola invasion brought about a crisis in the administration of Kosala and Utkala. Chaos and confusion reigned supreme. In this critical juncture of the Somavamsi dynasty there emerged a strong and efficient ruler Yayati II Chandihara, son of Abhimanyu and grand son of Vichitravira, a lineal descendant of Janamejaya, who was made king by the ministers. This statement of Brahmeswara Inscription is further corroborated by the Balijhari (Narasinghpur) copper plates of Uddyotakesari where it is stated that "the two arms of whom (Yayati II) accomplished their objectives by completely rendering free of enemies the two kingdoms, Utkala and Kosala, besieged by the combatant kings"[4].

Yayati II (C. 1025—1040 A. D.), driving out the external enemies, restored internal peace and order in his vast territories roughly comprising the whole of modern Orissa. In his Maranja Mura Charter, Yayati II claims that he was at war with Karnata, Lata, Gurjara, Kanchi, Gauda and Radha and maintained friendly relations with Banga. There is no doubt that Yayati II was a man of great valour and a very powerful ruler.

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1. Nilakanta Sastri, *The Cholas*, pp. 248—9
2. K. C. Panigrahi, *Chronology of the Bhauma-Karas and Somavamsis of Orissa*, p. 13.
3. K. B. Tripathy (ed)
4. Indian Historical Quarterly, Vol. XXXV, p. 106

Yayati II was succeeded by his son Uddyotakesari (C. A. D. 1040—1065) who was also a very able ruler. During his reign, the Kalachuris invaded Orissa in the west but the Somavamsi Kingdom appears to have successfully resisted the onslaught. Probably to check such invasion effectively Uddyotakesari assigned Kosala portion of his kingdom to one Abhimanyu who belonged to the collateral branch and administered the territories from a new headquarters known as Suvarnapura or modern Sonepur. This is clearly stated in the copper plate grant of Kumara Somesvara [1], who apparently succeeded Abhimanyu in Kosala. No doubt, Uddyotakesari was the master of the entire old Kosala country.

The disintegration of the Somavamsi kingdom began from the time of Uddyotakesari's son Janamejaya II (1065—1085 A. D.). From the Ratnagiri plates [2] of Karnadeva (C. 1100—1110 A. D.), probably the last ruler of the Somavamsi dynasty, it is known that Janamejaya II fought against a Naga King. The Naga King Somesvara I of Bastar was a contemporary of king Janamejaya II and therefore, in all probability, the latter had to wage war against the former which ultimately ended in the victory of the Naga king. In occupying Kosala, the Naga King was helped by Telgu-Choda family and finally the Telgu-Chodas ruled Kosala (the Sambalpur-Sonepur region) with their capital at Sonepur.

However, the period of final extinction of the Somavamsi control over Kosala is still a matter of conjecture. Especially the matter is to be re-examined in the light of a recent discovery of a copper plate from Tigiria in which one Dharmaratha claims himself as the master of 'Western Kalinga' [3].

25. The Telgu-Chodas

The Telgu-Choda ruler Somesvara II who issued Mahada Copper Plate grant in circa 1090 A.D. [4], declares himself in this grant as the king of Western Lanka having capital at Suvarnapura. This grant was issued in the 2nd year of his reign. Towards the close of the 11th century. the Telgu-Choda ruler of the Sambalpur-Sonepur region was Somesvara III about whom we know from his Kumarsingha and Patna Museum Copper Plate Grants, issued during the 11th and 17th regnal years, respectively. Besides these two prominent rulers, there was one Dharalladeva who appears to have ruled for a brief period. No inscription of his reign has been discovered. Somesvara III was the last Telgu-Choda King of Suvarnapura.

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1. Epigraphia Indica, Vol. XII, pp. 237—243; Vol. XXVII, pp. 320
2. Epigraphia Indica, Vol. XXXIII, p. 266
3. This Copper plate is yet to be edited
4. Epigraphia Indica, Vol. XXVIII, pp. 285—292

26. The Kalachuris

There are both epigraphic and numismatic evidence to show that Sonepur-Sambalpur region was in occupation of the Kalachuris of Ratnapura since the reign of Jajalladeva in the beginning of the 12th century A. D. In the Kharod Inscription of Ratnadeva II it is clearly stated that Jajalladeva I "by the might of his arms deprived Bhujavala, the lord of Suvarnapura, of his power in a hostile encounter"[1].

Bhujavala of the Kalachuri inscriptions was no other than Somesvara III the last Telgu-Choda chief of Kosala. He was defeated and perhaps killed by the Kalachuri king Jajalladeva I in about 1119 A. D.[2].

About the time the Sambalpur tract was conquered by Kalachuri Jajalladeva, a branch of the Rastrakuta family got possession of the Bargarh region and ruled as feudatory of the Kalachuris. Rulers of this family professed Saivism but had the figure of Garuda (Vishnu's vehicle) on their royal seals. They claimed to have hailed from a locality called Llatalora which is known to be the traditional home land of Rastrakutas of South India.

The earliest known ruler was Chamaravigraha who bore the epithet of 'Ranaka' meaning feudatory chief, and was proud of his white umbrella and yellow Chowrie. He was known as Mahamandaleswara and the lord of eighteen gondramas (eighteen forts ?). His son Dhvamsaka had no royal title and it is presumed that he predeceased his father. So the next ruler was Parachakrasalya, the grandson of Chamaravigraha. This ruler issued the Copper plate Charter from Vagharakotta which is identified by some scholars as the present town of Bargarh. The gift village Saledagrama is difficult to be located. The Charter was issued in Samvat .56 which is taken to be dated in Chalukya-Vikrama era and so the date of the record is 1131 A. D. We have, however, no information regarding the activities of this family after Ranaka Parachakrasalya.

Soon after taking possession of the Sambalpur-Balangir region, the Kalachuris entered into a protracted struggle with the Gangas who had then occupied Utkala under Chodaganga Dev. The Gangas attempted to drive out the Kalachuris and to occupy Sambalpur-Balangir area. The Kharod and Pendrabandha inscriptions clearly testify to the defeat of Chodaganga and his son Kamarnava at the hands of the Kalachuri kings, Ratnadeva II and Prithvideva II, respectively.

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1. Mahakosala Society's Papers, Vol. II, p. 61. Also, Kalinga Historical Research Society's Journal, Vol. I.
2. K. C. Panigrahi, *Chronology of the Bhauma-Karas and the Somavamsis of Orissa*, p. 45.

The Ganga-Kalachuri conflict continued for about a century and it was finally decided in favour of the Gangas. It is described in the Chatesvara Inscription[1] (1220 A. D.) that Vishnu, the Commander-in-chief of Anangabhima Deva III (1211—1238 A.D.), went in an expedition towards Tummana. The battle took place about 1211 A.D. which resulted in the defe t of the Kalachuris.

27. The Gangas

From that time onwards, the Sambalpur region remained under the rule of the Gangas and was placed under a Ganga Governor. The Khambeswari Temple Inscription of Sonepur discloses the fact that a Ganga Governor was stationed in that region probably with headquarters at Sonepur during the rule of Bhanu Deva I (1264—1778 A. D.), the grandson of Anangabhima Deva III[2].

The middle of the 14th century was a critical period for the Ganga rule in Orissa. In the north, Shamsuddin Ili as Shah, Governor of Bengal, rose in power and declared himself independent of the Sultan of Delhi. In the south, two powerful and independent kingdoms, Vijayanagar and Bahmani, raised their heads . All of them were longing to acquire the extensive Ganga empire of Orissa. The Ganga king. Bhanudeva III, who came to the throne in 1352 A. D. had to face the aggression and expedition of those neighbouring rulers. Besides, the Sultan of Delhi, Firuz Tughlug, also invaded Orissa. Bhanudeva III sued for peace by giving twenty elephants to the Sultan and he returned to Kara via Sambalpur.

All those expeditions and invasions had a great effect on the political condition of western Orissa. It weakened the Ganga hold on that region and paved the way for the establishment and growth of a new dynasty. Amidst chaos and confusion which prevailed in that region, one Ramai Deva, a Chauhan Rajput, laid the foundation of the Chauhan rule in western Orissa.

28. The Chauhans

From about 14th Century A. D. Sambalpur came under the Chauhan ruler of Patna who was the head of a cluster of eighteen states known as the Athargarhajat and dominated a large tract to the east of Ratnapur kingdom. Their ancestor is said to have been one Hammir Deo who lived near Mainpuri in North India and was killed by the Sultan of Delhi. One of his wives named Asavati, who was pregnant, fled away to save her life and honour and ultimately got shelter at the residence of one Chakradhar Panigrahi of Patna. There she gave birth to a son

1. Epigraphia Indica, Vol. XXIX, p. 125

Ibid, Vol. XXXII, pp. 325 ff

known as Ramai who ultimately succeeded to capture power from eight chieftains (Asta Mallik) and became the sole ruler of Patna. From all available evidence [1] Ramai Deo was the founder of the Chauhan rule in Patna. The Orissa Chauhans claim themselves to be 'Mainpuri' as well as 'Garh-Sambhari' (Place located in Rajasthan) because of the fact that they regard themselves as the descendants of the Chauhan ruling family of Mainpuri, whose ancestors were Chauhans of Garh Sambhar related to famous Prithviraja III. In course of time, the Chauhans of Patna extended their influence over the surrounding territories including Sambalpur and the adjoining states.

In the middle of the 16th century, Narasingh Dev, the Chauhan ruler of Patna, ceded to his brother Balaram Dev the territory of Sambalpur where the latter built a kingdom, independent of Patna. Balar am Dev was a reputed warrior and perhaps owing to military necessity the administration of Sambalpur region was entrusted to him Be that as it may, Balaram Dev soon consolidated the Chauhan rule in Sambalpur region and after the death of his brother Narasingh Dev he also attempted to reduce the kingdom of Patna.

According to Jayachandrika of Prahlad Dubey, the territory of Balaram Dev was first known as the kingdom of Huma and that his capital was at Bargarh on the bank of the river Jira. From Bargarh, Balaram Dev is said to have shifted his capital to Chaurpur and finally to Sambalpur on the left bank of the Mahanadi. He fortified the place and installed there 'Samalai', the most important deity of the aboriginal people of the locality.

The kingdom of Balaram Dev originally extended from the river Mahanadi in the north to the river Ong in the south and from the river Surangi in Phuljhar in the west to the village Huma on the Mahanadi in the east [2]. He extended his kingdom on all sides by wars and conquests. According to 'Kosalananda' of Gangadhar Mishra, Balaram Dev helped Ramachandra Dev I, the Raja of Khurda, against the in vasion of Muslims (Yavanas). Thus he was a contemporary of Rama Chandra Dev who was reigning in the second half of the 16th century A D. Balaram Dev defeated the Haihaya ruler of Ratnapur and the latter was obliged to cede Sarangarh, Paigarh and Sakti, etc., to the kingdom of Sambalpur. He also conquered the kingdom of Bamra and then re-installed its chief, Rama Chandra Dev, as a feudatory of Sambalpur. This enhanced the prestige of balaram Dev and his newly established kingdom of Sambalpur. Soon after that, a quarrel took place between Balaram Dev and Raja of Surguja on the issue of boundary

1. The early history of Chauhan rulers of Patna is known from a Sanskrit work Kosalananda' written by Pandit Gangadhar Mishra and a Hindi work called 'Jaya chandrika' written by Prahllad Dubey.

2. Siva Prasad Das, *The History of Sambalpur*, pp. 314

between their territories. Balaram Dev invaded Surguja through Gangpur which was then a feudatory state of Surguja. The ruler of Gangpur acknowledged the overlordship of Balaram Dev without any war. Surguja was also defeated and was made a vassal state. Both the rulers gave their daughters in marriage to Balaram Dev. He also brought the image of Vishnu reclining on the serpant Ananta from Sur guja which he installed in a temple constructed by him at Sambalpur.

In the meanwhile Narasingh Dev, the Raja of Patna, had breathed his last and his son Hammira Dev also died after a short rule of three years leaving behind him a minor son. Balaram Dev appointed his son Hrudayanarayan Dev to govern Patna on behalf of the minor prince. The rule of Hrudayanarayan in Patna was disliked by the old ministers and widow queen of Hammir Dev. Later on, Balaram Dev dismissed the ministers; and the widow queen, suspecting conspiracy against the life of her minor son Pratap Dev, fled with the boy to Nandapur. After the death of Balaram Dev, Hrudayanarayan Dev who succeeded to the throne of Sambalpur, brought back Pratap Dev from Nandapur and restored to him the kingdom of Patna as a vassal state of Sambalpur[1].

Hrudayanarayan Dev ruled Sambalpur for a brief period of five years (1600—1605 A.D.). The dates of the Chauhan rulers are not final, and more historical evidences are yet to be discovered for correct assignment of their period. He improved the internal administration of his kingdom. The temple of Patneshwari in Sambalpur was built by him. His son Balabhadra Dev was a powerful king who ruled for a long period of about 25 years (1605—1630 A.D.). The most important event of his administration was the war against Baudh, a neighbouring state, lying to the east of the Chauhan kingdom. It is said that the fort of Baudh was beseiged by Balabhadra Dev for a long period of 12 years and ultimately the king Siddha Bhanja of Baudh was defeated and imprisoned. His kingdom was restored to him when he promised to pay tribute to Sambalpur.

Balabhadra Dev was succeeded by his son Madhukara Dev (1630—1660 A.D.) who was a very popular king. He had five sons Baliar Singh, Madana Gopal, Banshi Gopal, Aniruddha Singh and Ananta Singh. The eldest prince, Baliar Singh, was made the heir apparent and he assisted his father in the administration of the kingdom. Madan Gopal was assigned to administer Sonepur where he established a new line of Chauhan dynasty. Banshi Gopal became a Vaishnavite ascetic and built some temples in different parts of Chauhan territory. He also established some 'Mathas' like the Gopalji Matha at Sambalpur and Sonepur. The establishment of the Ramaji Matha at Puri is also

1. Shri Rama Chandra Mallik—*A short History of Kosala*, pp. 117—120

attributed to him. Aniruddha Singh, the fourth son, became the chief of Khinda. Nothing is known about the fifth son. During the rule of Madhukar Dev, the Raja of Surguja revolted but was easily defeated and imprisoned in the fort of Sambalpur.

It is known from the 'Kosalananda' that Madhukar Dev in his old age abdicated the throne in favour of his eldest son Baliar Singh who probably ruled from about 1660 A.D. to 1690 A.D. Baliar Singh's court-poet was Pandit Gangadhar Misra, the author of Kosalananda kavya which throws much light on the administration of the Chauhan kings of Sambalpur. Baliar Singh was a great warrior and he extended the territories of his kingdom by many successful campaigns against the neighbouring states like Bonai, Yamatangi. etc. Yamatangi may be identified with Yamagarta Mandala which comprised a portion of the modern Keonjhar district and northern part of Dhenkanal district, i.e. roughly Pal-Lahara region. It was, at one time, under the suzerainty of Keonjhar [1]. Baliar Singh declared himself as the lord of eighteen garhs. The names of eighteen garhs under Baliar Singh are not available from any contemporary record. However, from a memorandum entitled "Notes on the Garjat State of Patna", by Major H. B. Impey, Deputy Commissioner, Sambalpur, dated the 29th May 1863, the names of eighteen garhs can be enumerated as follows : Sambalpur, Patna, Sonepur, Khariar, Baudh, Athamallick, Rairakhol, Bamanda (Bamra), Bonai, Gangpur. Raigarh, Sarangarh, Chanderpore, Bindra-Nuagarh, Sakti, Phuljhar, Borasambar and Baragarh. O' Malley included the states of Mayurbhanj, Keonjhar, Panchgarh and Athagarh in the dominion of Baliar Singh. The authority for the inclusion of such states cannot be traced now and the subjugation of the distant and powerful state of Mayurbhanj is rather improbable.

It is said that Baliar Singh once went to Puri on pilgrimage where he was invited by the Dowager Queen who was his mother's sister. When the queen found him alone and unguarded inside her palace she challenged him to show how he could defend himself if captured in that unguarded moment. Baliar Singh promptly replied, "Do not imagine me unguarded or unarmed, even now I can destroy thousands". So saying, he drew from inside his coat and turban some knives and swords which he had concealed. The Queen Dowager, pleased with his heroic behaviours, induced her son, the king of Puri, to bestow on Baliar Singh the high title of 'Hirakhand Chhatrapati Maharaj', i.e., the great lord of the country of diamonds.

It may be mentioned here that from time immemorial Sambalpur was famous as the producer of finest diamonds which was available from the river bed of Mahanadi near the town. Chandesvara, the

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1. N. K. Sahu, *Utkal University History of Orissa*, Vol. I pp. 117-118.

author of 'Ratna Pariksha' and Varahamihira, the author of 'Brihat Samhita' have mentioned the name Kosala as the producer of very lustrous diamonds [1]. No doubt, these diamonds of Kosala were available from Sambalpur. The Roman historian Gibbon has also stated that Rome was supplied with diamonds from the mine of 'Sumelpur' in Bengal. The famous Chinese pilgrim Hiuen Tsang noticed that diamonds were brought from the interior of the country and were sold in Kalinga. Probably the Jharas, who collected diamonds from the river bed at Sambalpur, used to sell them in Kalinga [2]. It was, therefore, natural for the Chauhans to be known as the rulers of 'Hirakhanda'.

Later on, the French traveller Tavernier in his accounts of Mughal India in the 17th century also mentioned the importance of Sambalpur diamonds. These classical accounts of diamonds of Sambalpur tempted Lord Clive to open negotiations with its rulers for trade in that valuable material. In 1766 he sent Thomas Motte to Sambalpur for that purpose. Several Europeans after him have mentioned of Sambalpur diamonds in their accounts [3].

During the reign of Baliar Singh, the chief of Bamanda (Bamra) rebelled against his authority, but was defeated and imprisoned in the fort of Sambalpur. He was released later on. Baliar Singh was a generous ruler and he used to reward his friends and relatives by grants of extensive Zamindaris. He built the temple of Bimaleswar Siva at Huma on the bank of Mahanadi. He is regarded as the greatest Chauhan ruler of Sambalpur.

Baliar Singh was succeeded by his son Ratan Singh who died after four months only. By that time his eldest son Chhatra Sai was not at Sambalpur and availing of this opportunity, the Dewan seized all powers and refused to recognise the authority of Chhatra Sai. With adequate military help from Sarangarh and Raigarh, Chhatra Sai easily defeated his enemies and recovered his own capital.

Chhatra Sai (1690—1725) was an efficient administrator. He fortified the town of Sambalpur by improving upon the constructions of the time of Balabhadra Dev, excavated the moat of the fort and made it deeper and wider, a part of which is popularly known as Chhatra Sagar. Chhatra Sai also renovated the temple of Samalai and repaired many other temples. One of the queens of Chhatra Sai was a princess from the ruling family of Ratnapur and she had a son named Budharai. Chhatra Sai was told by some of his trusted officers that the Rani was intriguing to place his son Budharai on the throne of Sambalpur. This led to the

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1. Siva Prasad Das, *History of Sambalpur*, P. 90
2. B. C. Mazumdar, *Orissa in the making* P. 78
3. See Appendix I-V.Ball, Diamonds and Gold Ores of the Sambalpur district (Report of the Geological Survey of India).

execution of both mother and the son. The Raja of Ratnapur wanted to take revenge of the cruel death of his daughter and grandson and he invaded Sambalpur with the help of the Bhonsla Raja of Nagpur. Chhatra Sai was defeated and imprisoned. But subsequently he was released and shortly after that, he retired to Puri where he spent the rest of his life.[1] His court physician Gopinath Sarangi wrote 'Chikitsa Manjari' in bilingual verses, Sanskrit and Oriya. It is known from this work that the Raja of Sambalpur was by that time the lord of eighteen garhs and thirteen Dandapats while the extent of territory was one hundred miles in length. Sambalpur, the capital of the kingdom, had a population of twenty thousand.

Chhatra Sai was succeeded by his son Ajit Singh (1725—1766 A. D.). He was an indolent and weak ruler. He had eight queens and three sons, namely, Abhaya Singh, Jayanta Singh and Padman Singh.[2] On the eve of his death in 1766 A. D., T. Motte, sent by Lord Clive, came to Sambalpur for negotiating with him for trade in diamond. His record clearly reveals the chaotic condition of Sambalpur towards the close of the reign of Ajit Singh[3]. The administration of the kingdom was completely under the influence of the ministers; and especially the Dewan, Dakshin Ray, rose to power and prominence. He managed the administration according to his whims and acquired much wealth. When the Raja was warned by his queen Muktamani Devi to get rid of this powerful minister, Ajit Singh hatched a plot and murdered Dakshin Ray in cold blood. The plan to assassinate Dakshin Ray was executed by one Piloo Ray who hoped to succeed him as the Dewan of Sambalpur. But one Kascree who was an officer in charge of the royal household was jealous of him and advised Ajit Singh to keep the post of Dewan vacant for some time. His aim was to acquire power and wealth like Dakshin Ray taking advantage of the indolence of his master. Piloo Ray, however, could know of his evil purpose and employed a villain to murder him. After Kascree's assassination, Piloo Ray was appointed as the Dewan and Ajit Singh soon came under his notorious influence. But the internal feud did not end here. Akbar Ray, a relative of Kascree, wanted to take revenge upon Piloo Ray and pursuaded the king to get rid of his evil influence. Akbar organised a plot against the life of Piloo Ray and murdered him on a festive occasion. Akbar Ray became the new Dewan and he surpassed all in his cruelty and corruption. In the midst of such internal disturbances, Ajit Singh died in May 1766, but on his death bed he cautioned his son and successor, Abhaya Singh to get rid of the wicked Dewan Akbar Ray.

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1. Siva Prasad Das, the *History of Sambalpur*, pp. 376-77

2. Sri Rama Chandra Mallick, A *short history of Kosala*, P. 186.

3. T. Motte, A narrative of a journey to the Diamond Mines at Sambalpur in the province of Orissa, Asiatic Annual Register, 1799. His account is reprinted in O' Malley's District *Gazetteer* of Sambalpur, pp. 40 FF.

Abhaya Singh (1766—1778) became the king of Sambalpur when he was a young boy of only 16 years. Reciprocal suspicion and resentment between him and Akbar developed into open hostility. Abhaya Singh appointed Krishna Barmullick as his Dewan and tried to suppress Akbar by military force. Akbar was prepared to meet such situation as he himself also commanded some armed forces. Consequently, the whole town was divided into hostile parties and at the time of this civil war Motte visited Sambalpur. He was an eye witness to the chaotic condition of the town. Motte was requested to help Abhaya Singh against Akbar, but he did not like to be dragged into the civil war Motte reports, "Matters came to a crisis on the 17th June, at night, when Akbar having collected his people, marched from his own house to the dalace, secured the person of the rajah, and murdered every one who offered to oppose him. A massacre followed in the town where three hundred of the dependants of Kissum Bur Mullick were put to death ....Akbar was appointed dewan and confined Kissum Bur Mullick in a dungeon". Thus, Akbar became the *de facto* ruler of Sam balpur.

In September 1766, the Maratha General Babu Khan, being sent by Januji Bhonsla of Nagpur, encamped near Sambalpur in his march towards Cuttack. He demanded money and 'rusad' from Akbar and quarrelled with him on that issue. On another occasion when the Marathas were transporting some guns from Nagpur to Cuttack through the Mahanadi, Akbar ordered his men to attack them as a result of which the guns sank in the river and the artillery men were drowned. The Raja of Nagpur tried to take revenge, but the army sent by him was repulsed by Akbar who recovered 8 guns from the river bed and mounted them on the fort of Sambalpur. Akbar had also to face rebellions inside his kingdom and he suspected one of the widow queens of Ajit Singh to be involved in a plot against him. He murdered the old Rani [1], and soon after that in 1778 A. D. Abhaya Singh died in the prison.

Akbar Ray placed on the throne one young boy, named Balabhadra Sai who belonged to the Padmapur Chauhan family. In the meantime Jayant Singh, the younger brother of Abhaya Singh, was collecting strength at Garhmandal. A number of Chiefs of Chhatisgarh prominent of whom was Raja of Sarangarh helped him with men and money. Thus, acquiring great strength Jayant Singh proceeded towards Sambalpur to recover his paternal throne. Akbar Ray was surprised and surrendered to him without much opposition. Jayant Singh entered into the palace and killed the boy king Balabhadra whose mother committed

1. Sri Rama Chandra Mallick, A *short history of Kosala*, p. 192.

suicide by throwing herself into a big pot of boiling ghee. Akbar was beheaded and Jayant Singh was declared the Raja of Sambalpur in 1781 A. D.

The rule of Jayant Singh was however not peaceful and by that time Sambalpur had become a great enemy of the Marathas owing to the past activities of Akbar Ray. The Raja of Nagpur was bent upon bringing Sambalpur under his control. Jayanta Singh was however willing to purchase peace and in 1794 he agreed to pay an annual tribute of Rs. 32,000 in cutcha coins [1], but in 1797 again quarrel broke out between the Marathas and the Raja of Sambalpur. That year Vinkoji Bhonsla, a brother of Raghuji II, Raja of Nagpur, passed through Sambalpur on pilgrimage to Puri. He was not properly received at Sambalpur and so after reaching Cuttack he sent an army under Bhup Singh to chastise the Raja of Sambalpur and other feudal chiefs under him. Bhup Singh imprisoned the chiefs of Baudh and Sonepur and appeared at Sambalpur after the rainy season. Jayant Singh fought against him with great courage and strength, as he had strengthened the Sambalpur fort in expectation of attack by the Marathas. The fort of Sambalpur was beseiged for 5 months. Subsequently, in April 1800, a Maratha Officer discovered that the moat near the Samalai gate was fordable. The Marathas thereupon made an attempt to cross the moat. Before doing that they threw rockets into the fort and set a few thatched buildings on fire. When the army in the fort were busy in extinguishing fire, the gate was forced and the fort was quickly taken [2]. Jayant Singh and his son Maharaja Sai were captured and sent as prisoners to Chanda. The occupation of Sambalpur was considered to be a great achievement and Bhup Singh was made the Governor of the newly conquered territory.

Bhup Singh soon assumed an independent position, and on being called to Nagpur to account for his conduct, refused to comply with the summons. The Nagpur Raja then sent a large force to punish his contumacy, but Bhup Singh surprised the Marathas in an ambuscade at the Singhora pass and routed them. This was only a temporary success. Bhup Singh foolishly provoked the enmity of one Chamra Gaontia by plundering his village, which was near the pass, and shortly afterwards, when a second body of Marathas arrived from Nagpur, Chamra placed the Maratha troops in ambush in the same pass. He then sent word to Bhup Singh that a few troopers were pillaging the country, and when Bhup Singh brought a force through the pass, the Marathas fell upon it and almost annihilated it. Bhup Singh, however,

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1. Selections from Nagpur Residency Records Vol. I, P. 54. The coins used in Sambalpur were known as Cutcha coins in Maratha records.

2. C. U. Wills, *British Relations with the Nagpur State in 18th Century*, pp. 150-51.

escaped death and fled to Kolabira. Later on, he joined the British forces and helped them to win Sambalpur from the Marathas. Tantia Pharnavis became the Maratha Governor of Sambalpur after the removal of Bhup Singh.

In time of the second Maratha War the British army occupied Cuttack and the fort of Barabati, the seat of the central authority of the Marathas in Orissa, on October 14, 1903. Immediately thereafter George Harcourt and Jhon Melville, 'The Commissioners for the affairs of Cuttack' opened negotiation with the chief of Garjats inducing them to acknowledge the British authority. On January 2, 1804, Major Broughton occupied Sambalpur fort with the help of Rani Ratna Kumari and Bhup Singh [1]. Tantia Pharnavis, the Maratha Governor, withdrew to Nagpur. But *shortly after, on January 14, 1804,* the official information of the conclusion of peace with Raghuji Bhonsla, the Raja of Nagpur, was received at Cuttack. On behalf of the East India Company, Major-General Wellesley had signed the peace treaty with the agent of Raghuji Bhonsla at Deogaon on December 17, 1803 and the Treaty was ratified by the Governor-General-in-Council on January 9, 1804. According to the second article of the Treaty, Raghuji Bhonsla ceded to the East India Company "in perpetual sovereignty, the province of Cuttack, including the port and district of Balasore". The tenth article of the Treaty stated that "certain Treaties have been made by the British Government with feudatories of Senah Saheb Soubah[2]. These Treaties are to be confirmed"[3]. This provision was a shrewd device to regularise the engagements which the Commissioner 'for the affairs of Cuttack' and Major Broughton had entered with the tributary chiefs who had submitted to the British authority.

But Raghuji Bhonsla was not at all prepared to surrender those territories to the British control. Broughton pointed out the Government that "the Zamindars, from long and painful experience, have acquired so thorough distrust in and bitter aversion to the Maratha Government that no appearances however plausible, or assurances however sincere would again induce them to place confidence in or be reconciled to, their former sovereign"[4]. His views were corroborated by the petition of the Queen and principal 'Zamindars' of Sambalpur in which they categorically denied any intention to return to the control of the Raja of Nagpur and wished sincerely to remain under the British

1. Selections from Nagpur Residency Records, Vol. I, p. 38

2. The title of the Raja of Nagpur.

3. C. U. Aitchison—A collection of Treaties, Engagements and Sunnuds relating to India and neighbouring country, Vol. III, pp. 97—9.

4. Selections from Nagpur Residency Records, Vol. I, P. 52.

protection. They were even willing to pay any amount of revenue to be fixed by the British Government. Broughton's attempt to induce them to return to the control of Raghuji Bhonsla was of no avail[1].

Consequently, the Governor-General-in-Council determined to keep those territories under the British protection and directed Elphinstone, the Resident at Nagpur, to explain the position to Raghuji Bhonsla. They wanted it to be conveyed to the Bhonsla Raja that "the British Government is disposed not only to guarantee to His Highness the annual receipt of the full amount of Revenue or Tribute which he derived from the Chieftains and territories in question, but even to compensate by any practicable means for this unavoidable reduction of the extent of his dominions" [2]. They argued that to give up those territories would constitute "a violation of our public faith". Besides that consideration, political expediency also weighed high in their mind to force the demands on Raghuji Bhonsla. George Harcourt pointed out that the possession of Sambalpur was desirable "more on political grounds than on any other". Because, it would greatly enhance the security of the British possessions of Cuttack [3].

When Raghuji Bhonsla did not like to recognise and ratify formally those possessions of the British as a part of the tenth article of the Treaty of Deogaon, the Governor-General threatened him that if he would not ratify the treaty within 24 hours the British Government would again declare war against him[4]. The ultimatum worked and thus Raghuji was compelled to surrender Sambalpur, etc., to the British control. But soon the tide took a different turn. Wellesley's policy of war and expansion was not appreciated in England, and he was recalled. By the express desire of the home authorities, his immediate successors had to play the role of peace-makers. G. H. Barlow, the Governor-General, restored the territories of Sambalpur and Patna with the exception of Raigarh to Raghuji in 1806[5].

Keshava Govind, the Subahdar of Ratanpur, came to occupy Sambalpur on behalf of the Bhonsla. But he was opposed by the chieftains under the leadership of Joujar Singh of Raigarh and Bhagat Bariha of Borasambar[6].

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1. Ibid, pp. 54—8. The signatories in the application were the Queen of Sambalpur and Chiefs of Raigarh, Sarangarh, Sonepur, Redhakol, Gangpur, Bamra, Bonai, Bargarh and Sakti
2. Selections from Nagpur Residency Records, Vol. I, P. 43.
3. Ibid, pp. 52-3.
4. Ibid, pp. 58-60.
5. C. U. Aitchison—A Collection of Treaties, Engagements, and Sunnuds etc., Vol. III, pp. 99-101.
6. Selections from Nagpur Residency Records, Vol. I, pp. 89-9.

The Marathas at first decided to proceed through negotiation. The Rani of Sambalpur demanded that the internal administration of her territories should be left to her in lieu of an annual tribute to the Marathas. Her husband, Raja Jayanta Singh and their son should be released immediately from the Maratha prison. The Marathas were not satisfied but they lulled her suspicion by an agreement and all of a sudden occupied the fort by use of troops. The Rani fled to the British protection and she was granted a pension of six hundred rupees per month[1]. The Marathas thus became the master of Sambalpur.

29. **The Marathas**

Sambalpur remained under the Maratha rule for nine years and their administration was rather tyrannical. Raghuji, deprived of a large part of his territory, tried to make the loss good by incessant exactions. The Maratha Governors also followed the master and the condition of the state of Nagpur was far from satisfactory. The territory was also exposed to the in-roads of the Pindaris and Pathans. In the midst of such disorder and disturbances, Raghuji Bhonsla breathed his last on March 22, 1816, and he was succeeded by his imbecile son, Parsoji. Soon after it, the Maratha states were involved in a serious contest with the English which finally destroyed the Maratha power in India. The Nagpur army was crushed at Sitabald on November 27, 1817. Appa Sahib, a cousin of Parsoji, who had captured power in Nagpur in the meantime fled to the Punjab. The territories lying to the north of the Narmada including western Orissa was annexed by the British, and a minor grandson of Raghuji II was installed as the ruler over the remnant of the state. Thus Sambalpur again came under the British suzerainty.

The British authorities at once obtained the release of the Raja Jayant Singh and his son Maharaja Sai from their confinement at Chanda and Jayant Singh was re-installed on the throne at Sambalpur. But he died in 1818. The widow Rani Mukta Dei petitioned to the British Government in favour of her step-son Maharaj Sai's accession to the throne. His claim was recognised, and he was made Raja in 1820 though without the feudal superiority which the former Rajas had held over the chiefs of the neighbouring states.

Maharaja Sai died in 1827, and his widow Rani Mohan Kumari was allowed to succeed. This was done against the local customs and laws of the land. Never in the history of the Chauhan rule of Sambalpur a woman had been raised to such a position. Disturbances immediately broke out, and for some years there was constant internecine strifes between the recognised ruler and other claimants to the chiefship. The most prominent of the latter was Surendra Sai, who claimed the

1. Selections from Nagpur Residency Records, Vol. II, p. 83.

chiefship as a descendant from Madhukar Sai, the fourth Raja of Sambalpur. He was readily supported by discontented Gond and Binjhal zamindars who found their privileges threatened and their lands encroached on by Hindu favourities of the Rani. Villages were plundered to within a few miles of Sambalpur; and though Lieutenant Higgins with a body of the Ramgarh Battalion, which was stationed in the fort, drove off the insurgents, matters became so serious that it became necessary to march a force from Hazaribagh to put an end to the disturbances. This force was commanded by Captain Wilkinson, who, after hanging several of the rebels, came to the conclusion that there would be endless trouble so long as the Rani remained in power. He accordingly deposed her in 1833 and set up Narayan Singh, a descendant of Bikram Singh, the son of Raja Baliar Singh, who had hitherto been considered not qualified to hold the Raj owing to his mother being of inferior caste. Narayan Singh was at this time what is called at Sambalpur a "Babu" a title implying that the individual is of the Chauhan or chief's family, and was apparently a sort of personal attendant on the Rani. He is described as having been perfectly astounded when it was proposed to make him Raja, so much so that he prayed the Agent not to exalt him to so dangerous a position. However, Mohan Kumari was sent off to Cuttack, the Government troops were withdrawn and Narayan Singh was left to manage his newly acquired principality as well as he could.

Rebellion broke out at once, the Gonds rising under Balabhadra Dao, a Gond Zamindar of Lakhanpur, and it was long time before the rebellion could be put down as the insurgents always found shelter in the vast range of hills known as the Barapahar. Balabhadra Dao was, however, at last slain at Debrigarh, the highest point of the hills and a noted rebel stronghold. An even more serious disturbance, followed in 1839, chiefly due to Surendra Sai, who looked upon Narayan Singh as an usurper, and as already mentioned, claimed the throne on the ground of his descent from the fourth Raja of Sambalpur. In 1840 he and his brother Udwant Sai, with their uncle Balaram Singh murdered in cold blood the son and father of Durjaya Singh, Zamindar of Rampur. Upon this the three were arrested, tried and sent off to the Jail at Hazaribagh as life-prisoners[1].

Narayan Singh died in 1849, and his widow, Rani Mukhyapan Devi, assumed the reins of Government, but as he had died without male issue, the country was annexed by the British. This decision was taken in pursuance of Lord Dalhousie's well known Doctrine of Lapse, but the case of Sambalpur was different from that of other native states, for no adoption had ever been proposed, and the last Raja had during

1. P. Mukherjee, Utkal University *History of Orissa*, Vol. VI. p. 267.

his life-time expressly intimated his wish that the British Government should take possession of his principality and provide for his Ranis[1]. Accordingly, Mr. Crawford, the Agent to the Governor-General, issued proclamation that the State had lapsed to the British Government, and sent two native officials, Munshi Prasanna Lal and Rai Rup Singh to take over the Raja's papers, and to dispose of petty cases, etc. Mr. Crawford himself arrived at Sambalpur with a regiment of the Ramgarh Battalion in December 1849, bringing with him Dr. J. Cadenhead. The latter officer was left in charge of the district as Principal Assistant with Rup Singh as "Native Assistant", and Narayan Singh's widow, Rani Mukhyapan Devi, was sent off to Cuttack with a pension of Rs. 100 per mensem.

An idea of the internal state of the country before the British annexation may be gathered from the description given by Lieutenant Kittoe in his account of a 'Journey through the Forests of Orissa' published in the Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal for May, 1839. "Sambalpur", he says, "lapsed to the British Government in 1827 by the death of the late Raja, but for reason they sought for an heir-at-law and conferred it on an obscure and aged Zamindar, and a perfect imbecile, who is now entirely in the hands of his crafty ministers. These people and the Brahmans possess the best lands and obtain his sanction to all kinds of extortion, the farmers in their turn grind their ryots, the effects of such an unjust and oppressive system are everywhere apparent. It is said that the Raja realizes Rs. 7,00,00 per annum, but Rs. 4,00,000 is perhaps nearer the mark, including valuable diamonds, which are occasionally found. It is certain that were the province under proper rule, much more could be made of it. Therefore, it is to be hoped that on the demise of the present Raja, who has no children, the Government will avail itself of the opportunity and resume it. At present it pays us an annual tribute of Rs. 8,000, Rs. 500 of which has for some years past been remitted in consideration of the dawk road being kept in repair, and the jungle in its immediate vicinity cleared".

The general nature of the rule of the native chiefs of Sambalpur has been illustrated in the Settlement Report by Mr. Dewar: "The royal household received supplies of necessaries from its rich domain lands in such villages as Talab lying near the palace, but while the Raja remained in residence at his headquarters, the headmen of villages, both far and near, sent in requisitions of produce in addition to their customary money payments. When he toured through his State, further supplies were exacted, and all officers of Government lived free of charge, and took toll not only from the fields and gardens but also

1. The Administration of Lord Dalhousie, Calcutta Review Vol. XXII(p. 35) 1854, Sir Charles Jackson and Lord Dalhousie, Calcutta Review, Vol. XLI (p. 180) 1866.

from the looms and nets. At times villages were liable to render unpaid labour on the roads and public buildings. These, the usual incidents of feudal rule, represented an amount of taxation large out of proportion with the fixed annual payments of cash. They were further added to an all exceptional or recurring occasions of expense by the levy of 'Nazaranas' on the headmen of villages. Their amounts were determinable only by the State, and they were liable to take the form of heavy benevolences. The Zamindars, besides their nominal tributes, and besides the cost of presents paid and produce consumed during a royal progress in time of peace, were in war time liable to be called out with men, arms and supplies". On the whole, "The total revenue, probably not less than five times the fixed annual collections, can never under this system have been a light one, even in prosperous and peaceful years".

30. Early British Administration

The first acts of the new Government were apparently neithe judicious nor conciliatory. The revenue was at once raised by one-fourth indiscriminately, without reference to the capabilities of the villages, and the whole of the free-hold grants, religious and other were resumed. Those who held villages entirely rent-free were assessed at half rates, without any reference to the period for which the grant had been held, or to the terms of the tenure. Assignments in money or grain from the revenues of villages were resumed, as well as assignments of land in villages. Great dissatisfaction was consequently created at the outset, and so seriously did the Brahmans, who form a numerous and powerful community, look upon it, that they went in a body to Ranchi to appeal, without, however, obtaining any redress. In 1854 a second settlement was made on equally indiscriminate principles the assessments of all villages being again raised by one-fourth. The result was an enormous rise in the revenue obtained by Government. "The amount", says a writer in 1854, "paid by this State as tribute previous to 1849 was only Rs. 8,800. The amount now taken in the shape of direct revenues is Rs. 74,000 of which only Rs. 25,000 are expended in the cost of collection and the payment of establishments, including a European Officer". In these circumstances, it is perhaps not altogether surprising that, when Surendra Sai headed a revolt during the Mutiny of 1857, he was joined by a number of chiefs, who feared further losses under British Settlements. The chief of Kolabira was one of the most powerful of these Zamindars, and on his taking up the rebel cause, many of the others followed from the force of example or were compelled to join by the more influential. A few, however, held aloof, among whom may be mentioned Gobind Singh of Jharsuguda, who had previously revolted against the Rani Mohan Kumari and looked upon himself as the rightful heir to the State.

31. Uprisings of 1857-58 and Surendra Sai

When the Mutiny of 1857[1] broke out, the troop stationed at Sambalpur consisted of a detachment (150 foot and 12 horse) of the Ramgarh Battalion, on the loyality of which little reliance was placed, as it was believed to depend on the fidelity of the troops at Dinapore. These apprehensions were justified in the case of the detachment at Hazaribag which, on hearing of the rising at Dinapore on July 30, 1857 mutinied, plundered the treasury, broke open the jail, and released the prisoners among whom were Surendra Sai, the claimant of the Sambalpur Raj, and his brother Udwant Sai. All remained quiet, however, at Sambalpur, and the detachment remained perfectly staunch as indeed it did through the whole course of the rebellion. Before the end of August, rumours of insurrectionary movements had begun to spread, though no actual outbreak occurred for sometime, and early in September two companies of Madras troops were ordered up from Cuttack to Sambalpur by G. F. Cockburn, the Commissioner of Orissa.

Soon after their release from the Jail, Surendra Sai and Udwant Sai entered the district, and a number of followers quickly collected round them. By the middle of September, they entered the town of Sambalpur with a force of 1,400 or 1,600 men, and established themselves within the precincts of the old fort. Surendra Sai soon established contact with captain R. T. Leigh, Senior Assistant Commissioner of Sambalpur, and assured him that he had no intention of aspiring to the Raj, and that his only object was to induce the Government to cancel the remaining portion of his and his brother's imprisonment. Captain Leigh promised to represent the matter to the Government, and in the mean time Surendra Sai agreed to disperse his followers and remain in Sambalpur, while Udwant Sai was permitted to reside in the village of Khinda, a little distance off. Captain T. E. Dalton, the Commissioner of Chotanagpur, recommended to the Government of Bengal for commuting the sentences of Surendra Sai and his brother on the condition that they should reside either at Cuttack or at Ranchi while G. F. Cockburn insisted on taking strong measures like deportation. Surendra Sai was treated like a political prisoner and his residence was closely guarded. Naturally he wanted to escape and on October 31, 1857, he fled to Khinda where his brother had collected more than a thousand rebels.

In the meanwhile. further reinforcement of two companies of the 40th Madras Native Infantry had been despatched under Captain Knocker from Cuttack. Besides, Lieutenant Hadow of the Madras

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1. This account of the Mutiny has been prepared mainly from the "Minute by the Lieutenant Governor of Bengal on the Mutinies as they affected the lower Provinces under the Government of Bengal".

Artillery, who arrived at Cuttack with some light mountain guns, was also asked to reach Sambalpur by forced marches, and to take part in an expedition which Captain Knocker made against Khinda and Kolabira. In the latter place, which he reached on November 5, 1857, he destroyed the house of the Gaontia. But he failed to capture Surendra Sai and his brother at Khinda, though he found their houses loopholed and prepared for defence. In only one place he could find a large gathering of armed men concealed by the jungle.

Matters had now taken a serious turn. Many of the principal Zamindars were collecting their Paiks for the purpose of resisting the Government, and the whole country in the neighbourhood of Sambalpur was temporarily in the hands of the insurgents, who were posted in strength at a distance of not more than three or four miles from the place, and fired on the British pickets. Dr. Moore of the Madras Army, who had been ordered to proceed with Hanson to afford medical aid to the troops at Sambalpur, was murdered at Jujomura while on the march. Hanson, however, escaped and wandered in the forest without food until rescued by a party of Sebundis sent out by Captain Leigh. Captain Leigh himself marched out with a considerable body of the Madras corps to support the Sebundis, but was attacked by the rebels under cover of dense jungle, and lost several of his men without being able to retaliate. By the beginning of December the Dak road to Bombay was obstructed, two of the Dak stations had been burnt down, while large bodies were collecting in various directions and committing excesses of all sorts. The prestige of the British Government was at its nadir.

G. F. Cockburn, the Commissioner of Orissa, now despatched to Sambalpur the remainder of the 40th Madras Native Infantry under the Command of Major Bates, and with him the guns and artillery men stationed at Cuttack. Meanwhile the Lieutenant-Governor authorised the formation of two companies of Sebundis for service in the district under Captain Bird of the 40th Madras Native Infantry. He made a strong representation to the Government of India to take immediate measures for strengthening Sambalpur. It was also decided to transfer Sambalpur temporarily to the Orissa Division, owing to the difficulty of access from the north and the heavy amount of work which pressed on the Commissioner of Chotnagpur. G. F. Cockburn, who had been practically in charge of the district for some time before, assumed official charge on December 19, 1857, and proceeded at once to Sambalpur accompanied by a wing of the 5th Madras Native Infantry under Major Wyndham and by a detachment of artillery under Captain Ellywn of the Madras Artillery, arriving there on January 20, 1858.

In the meantime, Captain Wood had arrived at Sambalpur from Nagpur with a squadron of the Nagpur Irregular Horse. On December 30, 1857, Wood surprised the rebels in a grove of trees at Kudapali and charged down on them with his cavalry, while the infantry came up in time to complete the rout. Fifty-three of the rebels were killed and a large number of them were wounded. Surendra Sai again managed to escape, but his brother Chhabila Sai was shot dead in the skirmish. Major Bates arrived at Sambalpur and assumed command of all the troops in the district. He at once proceeded to force the Jharghati pass, which was held by Udwant Sai. Bates cleared the road to Ranchi from obstruction, and also seized some arms and ammunition. He next destroyed the village of Kolabira, which had been a stronghold of rebels, and shortly afterwards the Gauntia and thirteen of the most influential men gave themselves up. The estate was confiscated, and the Gauntia, convicted of treason, was hanged. Shortly after-wards, the Singhora pass on the road to Nagpur was forced by Captain Shakespear, who with a small force of Nagpur cavalry, successfully attacked the insurgents. Captain Wood and Captain Woodbridge were sent out with detachments to occupy this position, but on February 12, 1858, Captain Woodbridge was shot dead while marching on a post held by the rebels at Paharsirgira.

Vigorous measures were also taken by detachments sent out to different parts of the district. They were, of course, hampered by the physical feature of the district, its dense jungles and inaccessible hills afforded cover and a ready retreat for the insurgents. A successful attack was, however, made by Captain Nichols of the 5th Madras Native Infantry on stronghold of the rebels in the Barapahar hills supposed to be inaccessible to regular troops. The rebels were driven out, and a store of provisions was taken.

Towards the end of February 1858, tranquility began to be restored. The rebels were being hunted down in all directions. When the situation improved in favour of the British, Cockburn returned to Cuttack. His presence was no longer required at Sambalpur for Colonel Forster, who had been invested with the Chief Civil and military authority in the district, arrived at the end of March and was soon able to report that he could dispense with the services of all but his own regiment and the Sebundis. In April 1858 Colonel Forster convened a conference of the neighbouring Rajas and Zamindars and made them promise to send their contingents to fight against Surendra Sai. The Raja of Patna had been fined one thousand rupees by Cockburn as he was suspected of giving help and shelter to Ujjal Sai, a borther of Surendra Sai. In order to have the fine remitted, the Raja arrested Ujjal Sai and made him over to

Colonel Forster who hanged him at Balangir without any trial[1]. In spite of all efforts of Colonel Forster, Surendra Sai, the leader of the rebellion, still remained at large.

In April 1861, Major Impey was appointed Deputy Commissioner of Sambalpur in place of Colonel Forster. He firmly believed that only conciliatory measures would induce the rebels including the leader Surendra Sai to surrender. However, the Government of Bengal sanctioned the offer of a free pardon in the first instance to all rebels, who would surrender, except Surendra Sai, his brother Udwant Sai and his son Mitrabhanu. On September 24, 1861 Impey issued the first proclamation to that effect. However, the next proclamation issued on October 11, 1861, extended amnesty also to those leaders[2]. Towards the end of 1861 R. N. Shore, the Commissioner of Cuttack, came to Sambalpur under express orders of the Government to enquire into matters connected with the rebellion. He found that Impey had succeeded to create an ample confidence in the minds of local people and his conciliatory policy was highly appreciated. The Government of Bengal also confirmed the terms of proclamation regarding the restoration of property to the rebels. The Zamindar of Kolabira, a staunch supporter of Surendra Sai, received very generous treatment after his surrender and that conciliatory gesture convinced the rebels about the sincerity of the British Government to restore peace and order in the long troubled district. Negotiations continued with the rebels, and ultimately the policy of Major Impey was crowned with success. Mitrabhanu, Udwant Sai and finally Surendra Sai surrendered to the British authority in 1862 and liberal pensions were granted to them[3].

The great Revolt of 1857 had been suppressed elsewhere in India by 1858. But in the district of Sambalpur it had continued till 1862. The Secretary to the Chief Commissioner, Central Provinces, rightly pointed out to the Government of India—"The Sambalpur district was perhaps the very last district in India, in which the embers of the disturbances of 1857 were finally stamped out".[4]

For sometime after the surrender of Surendra Sai the country remained quiet. Early in 1863, however, fresh political upheaval began to be felt. By that time Sambalpur had been incorporated with the Central Provinces, and the first visit of the Chief Commissioner, Sir Richard Temple, was made an opportunity for reviving the old demand for restoration of the Chauhan rule. One Kamal Singh, a

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1. History of Freedom Movement in Orissa, Vol. II, pp. 26-7.

2. P. Mukherjee, *Utkal University History of Orissa*, Vol. VI, p. 261.

3. Surendra Sai got a pension of Rs. 1,200 and other members of his family were granted Rs. 4,400 only. P. Mukherjee, *Utkal University History of Orissa*, Vol. VI, p. 261.

4. *Ibid.* p. 261.

follower of Surendra Sai, carried on his work of depredation vigorously. Major Impey failed to capture him. In course of his wide scale operation against Kamal Singh in the forest of Barapahar, Major Impey suffered much and died at Sambalpur in December 1863. After him Captain Cumberledge was appointed as the Deputy Commissioner on January 19, 1864. Some British officers had suspected Surendra Sai of complicity with the dacoities committed by Kamal Singh and had suggested an immediate arrest of the former. Major Impey did not believe in it. But Captain Cumberledge gave up the conciliatory policy of Major Impey and arrested Surendra Sai in his own house at Khinda with his son Mitrabhanu and some other followers on January 23, 1864. His brothers Udwant Sai and Medini Sai were also captured from a different place. It was not possible to prove that Surendra Sai was preparing to rise against the Government, and J. S. Campbell, the Judicial Commissioner, remarked that the case was prepared against him by the police who were unable to punish Kamal Singh and others for committing dacoities. In spite of the strong verdict of the Judicial Commissioner, Surendra Sai and six others were detained at Nagpur under Regulation III of 1818. It was argued that Surendra Sai was a dangerous political offender and tranquility of the district might be disturbed by his release. All the seven prisoners were taken to the fort of Asirgarh in January-June, 1866. In 1871 Kamal Singh was captured and was also sent to the same fort. Mitrabhanu Sai, son of Surendra Sai, was released on the surety of his father-in-law, the Raja of Bonai in 1877, and the Government of India passed orders in 1907 permitting him to return to his home at Khinda. Surendra Sai died in the prison on February 28, 1884. This undaunted warrior against the British Raj is now acknowledged as a national hero.

Towards the close of the 19th century, Sambalpur displayed a fresh political consciousness when Oriya, the mother tongue of the people, was not recognised by the Government to be the official language of the district. The Chief Commissioner of Central Provinces in his order dated January 15th, 1895 abolished Oriya as the Court language of Sambalpur and introduced Hindi in its place in order to facilitate the Hindi-speaking officials in that district[1]. The language agitation started in Sambalpur and became widespread in Orissa. Public meetings were held at Sambalpur, Balasore, Puri, Parlakimedi and Cuttack in protest of the policy of the Government of Central Provinces. Sir Andrew Fraser, Chief Commissioner of Central Provinces, visited Sambalpur in 1901, when people met him in large number and submitted a memorial to restore Oriya language and to transfer the district of Sambalpur to Orissa. Sir Andrew Fraser appreciated the cause of the popular movement of Sambalpur and recommended that owing to the ethnical and

1. P. Mukherjee, *Utkal University History of Orissa*, Vol. VI, P. 42.

linguistic differences between Sambalpur and other districts of Central Provinces, the Chief Commissioner be relieved of the district altogether. Oriya was restored as the official language of Sambalpur in 1903 and subsequently in October, 1905 the bulk of the district was transferred to Orissa and remained a part of the province of Bengal until 1st April, 1912 when the province of Bihar and Orissa was constituted.

32. Freedom Movement

Sambalpur took active part in the National Movement of India since 1919. Shri Chandra Sekhar Behera was then leader of the movement in the district. He presided over the meeting of the Utkal Union Conference at Puri in 1919 and inspired its members to transform their parochial ideology into All-India spirit of nationalism. He persuaded the Utkal Union Conference to merge with the Indian National Congress. In 1920 during the Chakradharpur session of the Conference, Chandra Sekhar put forward the resolution for accepting the spirit and ideology of Indian National Congress which was approved by the Conference. It was from that time onwards that Sambalpur actively joined the National Movement of India and the people flocked under the banners of Indian National Congress with remarkable enthusiasm. Shri Fakir Misra, a teacher of Sambalpur High English School, used to spread patriotism among his students by talking to them about *Swadeshi*. He made in secret a bonfire of foreign cloths. In 1921, Non-Co-operation Movement was launched throughout the district and in towns like Sambalpur, Bargarh and Jharsuguda, the movement assumed a vigorous form. On January 2nd, 1921, students of the Zilla School of Sambalpur left their classes and attended a big public meeting which was held at the foot of the Budharaja hill. A Hartal was organised on the next day in the town of Sambalpur.

In 1921, the National High School was established and was housed in the building of the Fraser Club at Sambalpur. Pandit Nilakantha Das, who was then a Professor in Calcutta University, came to Sambalpur to accept the post of Headmaster of the National High School. Majority of the teachers worked on an honorary capacity and only few of them were getting some nominal pay. As many as 200 students took admission into the School and received general education along with craft training. Spinning, weaving and carpentry, etc., were included in the curriculum and there was also provision for Hindi teaching. Both teachers and students of the National High School were spreading the message of Indian National Congress in the rural areas of the district. During the Non-Co-operation Movement of 1921 they took active part and the movement was launched at Bargarh, Jharsuguda, Talpatia, Rampella and several other places. It was in course of the movement that Shri Gopabandhu Chaudhuri, who was a Deputy Magistrate at Baragrh, resigned his job in order to take leadership of the movement. It also attracted the attention of Deshbandhu Chittaranjan Das who

deputed from Calcutta two Congressmen viz. Shri Satish Chandra Dasgupta and Shri Shyamsundar Chakravarti to study how the movement had so rapidly spread there.

The spirit of the Non-Co-operation Movement cooled down towards the end of 1921 when the National School ceased to function. In 1922, Khadi and Charkha movement were organised, and literacy and prohibition drive were made in many parts of the district. Centres of Khadi industries were also opened. Pandit Lakshminarayan Mishra, Bhagirathi Pattanaik, Ghanashyam Panigrahi, Achyutananda Purohit, Chintamoni Pujari and others made vigorous drive against untouchability and spread education among the Harijan people of the district. Illiterate Harijans like Sukaram Tanti, Kastaram Tanti and Kanram Tanti joined the Indian National Congress and suffered imprisonment for several months.

There was fresh agitation at Sambalpur at the beginning of 1927. On February 17, 1927, Congress flags were hoisted on the old palace of the Raja of Sambalpur as well as on Gopalji Matha and mass meetings were organised at several places of the district[1]. Mahatma Gandhi visited Sambalpur on December 23, 1928. He was welcomed by all sections of people and a mass meeting was held on the Mahanadi bed in front of Brahmapura temple. The women of Sambalpur organised a separate meeting to receive Mahatma Gandhi. Shrimati Krishna Devi, who came on that occasion, visited Bargarh where women of that subdivision received her in a large public meeting. By that time a two-storied building donated by Shri Fakir Charan Behera of Bargarh became the Congress Office and that was opened by Shrimati Krishna Devi.

During the Salt Satyagraha movement of 1930, Sambalpur played an important part. A Satyagraha Committee was organised under the Chairmanship of Shri Ghanashyam Panigrahi. Shri Dayananda Satapathi and Shri Harihar Behera were the Joint Secretaries of the Committee. Four batches of Satyagrahis were sent by the Committee to defy the British laws and to prepare contraband salt at different places of the coastal districts of Orissa. All Satyagrahis and volunteers suffered ill-treatment of the police and several of them like Shri Sudhanshu Sekhar Gupta, Mahavir Singh, Dayananda Satapathi and Shri Lakshman Giri courted imprisonment. In 1932, Satyagraha Movement was launched again. The towns of Sambalpur and Bargarh became the hot beds of national agitation. In Bargarh the British Government had to take resort to lathi charge. Large number of people were arrested and fined and the situation was brought under control by repressive measures. Besides Bargarh and Sambalpur, people of many other places joined the Satyagraha movement with great enthusiasm. In

1. H. K. Mahatab (Ed.) *History of the Freedom Movement in Orissa* Vol. III, P. 83.

Bargarh subdivision the national rising took vigorous form at Barpali, Ramenda, Panimura, Samlaipadar, and Bhenria. Several ladies also joined the movement and got arrested without hesitation. Yambobati Devi, wife of Shri Bhagirathi Pattanaik, burnt some bundles of foreign clothes in the Bazar of Barpali for which she suffered imprisonment for six months. Civil disobedience movement continued in more or less vigorous form till April 1934. On May 5, 1934, Mahatma Gandhi visited Sambalpur for the second time for Harijan works. Shri Janardan Sipakar donated a house for the Harijans in honour of the visit of Mahatma Gandhi and that was converted into Harijan Hostel.

Orissa became a separate State on April 1, 1936, and the Congres Ministry was formed in July, 1937. Shri Bodhram Dubey, a notable Congress leader of Sambalpur, became one of the three Ministers. The Ministry, however, resigned in December 1939 on the issue of the declaration of the Second World War. In 1940, 'Individual Satyagraha Movement, was organised throughout Orissa. Shri Bodhram Dubey inaugurated this movement in Sambalpur and was arrested by the police.

The district did not lag behind in the 'Quit India Movement' of 1942 and there was widespread unrest against the British Raj not only in big towns like Sambalpur, Bargarh. Jharsuguda but also in remote villages. Pandit Lakshminarayan Mishra who had been to Bombay to attend the meeting of the All-India Congress Committee was arrested on his way back to Sambalpur. Hartals were organised at Sambalpur and Jharsuguda in protest of the arrest of Congress leaders in Bombay. Students as usual took active part in the movement and organised strike and mass demonstration Large number of Congress workers were arrested in different parts of the district and the jails at Sambalpur and Bargarh became over-crowded.

The Congress Movement in Sambalpur encouraged and influenced the organisation of 'Praja Mandal' Movement in 1946 in both the ex-States of Bamra (Bamanda) and Rairakhol adjacent to Sambalpur; vigorous agitation was made against the rule of the feudatory chiefs. Popular movement died out soon after the Independence of India which eventually led to the merger of those two ex-States with the district of Sambalpur on 1st January, 1948.

33. History of Ex-States of Bamra (Bamanda) and Rairakhol

(i) Bamra

In the second half of the 10th century A. D. the territory of Bamanda (Bamra) was under the administration of the Mathara royal family. Kings of this family were very powerful in the 5th century A. D. when they ruled over Kalinga extending from the Mahanadi in the north to the river Krishna in the south. This ruling family remained obscure for a long time after their fall about 500 A.D. In the 10th century A. D.

the scions of this family were found to be the rulers of Bamanda Dandapata under over-lordship of the Somavamsi monarchs of Kosala. A copper plate inscription found from the village Kudopali in Sambalpur reveals that Ranaka Punja, son of Boda, was ruling over Bamanda in the 13th regnal year of his over-lord Bhimaratha. The Matharas were ousted from power after the fall of the Somavamsis and western Orissa including the Bamanda region came under the rule of the Kalachuris of Ratnapur early in the 11th century A. D. The Gangas of Utkala occupied this region during the early part of the 12th century A. D.

According to tradition preserved by the Durbar of the ex-State of Bamanda, the first Ganga ruler of Bamanda was the son of Hattahamir Deo, the last Ganga king of Patna, who was killed by Ramai Deo, the founder of the Chauhan rule in the 14th century A.D. It is said that Saraju Dev, the only son of Hattahamir, was taken out of Patna by Suna Khond of Katangapani and Kantaru Bhuyan of Kelipadar and was installed as the ruler of Bamanda. The tradition, however, is not corroborated by any authentic records. After Saraju Dev his son Raj Narayan Dev and the latter's son Jagannath Dev came to the Gadi. The next ruler was Gangadhar Dev whose son and successor was Jaga Jyesthi Dev Tribhuban Dev. Then came Rudra Narayan Dev who was known as a powerful monarch. He is said to have defeated a neighbouring Kalachuri chief Biswanath Dev and incorporated his territory into his own kingdom. Thus Bamanda became on extensive territory during his rule. Raja Rudra Narayan was a patron of the Brahmins and he donated several villages to Brahmin families. After him Kanphoda Sudhal Dev came to the throne. His successor Raghunath Dev fought with the Raja of Gangpur and occupied some territories. It was probably during his rule that Bamanda came under the possession of the Marhattas. Raja Raghunath also faced the rising of the Khonds because of which he had to shift his headquarters to a village named Sundera. The next Raja was Kasturi Dev after whom Ramachandra Dev came to the Gadi. This ruler further shifted his headquarters from Sundera to Deogaon which was later renamed as Deogarh. Ram-Chandra Dev was succeeded by Dubla Dev. He was in love with the daughter of Jagabandhu Dev, the Raja of Bonai. But as the latter was unwilling to give his daughter in marriage to him, Dubla Dev fought against him and being victorious married the princess. He was succeeded by Mukhi Dev who also extended the territory by defeating the neighbouring chief of Rairakhol. The Raja of Pallahara was also defeated by Mukhi Dev who married his daughter. His son Viswanath Dev came to the Gadi after his death and the next ruler was Viswanath's son Sadananda Dev. He had two Brahmin ministers named Harisaran Dwivedi and Harihar Das who rendered help in day-to-day administration. Not much, however, is known about them. After Sadananda Dev, his two sons Vikram Dev and Raghunath Dev became the successive

rulers of Bamanda. The next ruler was Bibhuti Dev, a relation of Sadananda Dev, who was succeeded by his son Hadu Dev. Hadu Dev was an oppressive ruler. The Zamindars and other local chiefs revolted against him. It is said that Hadu Dev was ousted from the throne and his nephew Chandra Sekhar was installed at a place called Kuleigarh.

Prataprudra Dev, the next successor to that throne and twenty-first Raja in the line of Saraju Dev, built the temple of Jagannath in his capital at Deogarh. During his regime Orissa came under the East India Company in 1803 and Bamanda was also practically occupied by the British. After the death of Prataprudra Dev, his Rani Chandra Kumari performed the rite of Satee and the monument commemorating the incident is still to be found near Deogarh. Sarveswar, the son and successor of Prataprudra Dev, was murdered by a spy of Rairakhol after a short rule and his Rani performed Satee at a place called Kodarkote. After Sarveswar Dev, his son Arjuna Dev and his grand-son Balunkabrusabha Dev occupied the throne successively. Balunkabrusabha Dev had six sons and the eldest son Khageswar who succeeded him met a premature death. He was succeeded by his next brother Brajasundar Dev about the middle of the 19th century. Brajasundar Dev helped the British Government during their conflict with Raja Somanath Singh of Angul. As a reward, the Government conferred on him the title of 'Raja Bahadur' and presented him with two guns, one elephant and the Khilat. In 1865 he received an adoption 'Sanad' from the British Government and in 1867 a 'Sanad' defining his status as a Feudatory Chief was granted. He was a popular ruler and improved his territory in all possible ways. He renovated the temple of Jagannath built by Raja Prataprudra Dev. He also built a temple on the top of the Mahendra mountain in honour of his family god Gokarneswar. Brajasundar adopted Basudev, a son of his younger brother Harihar Dev. He died in 1869 and was succeeded by his adopted son who was then a boy of 18 years. His father Harihar Dev became the guardian till 1874 when Basudev took charge of the administration of the State.

Raja Basudev Sudhal Dev was an enlightened ruler and his efficient administration was highly appreciated in all quarters. He was himself a profound scholar in Sanskrit and Oriya and took special interest in spread of education. He raised the M E. School of the State to the standard of a High School and got it affiliated to Calcutta University in 1885. He harnessed the fall of Pradhanpat for supply of water by tap system to Deogarh. He set up a press and started a weekly journal entitled 'Sambalpur Hitaisini'. It was during his rule that the jail, police-station, post offices, dispensaries were established and irrigation system was introduced. He had a telephone line of 78 miles in length, which was supposed to be one of the longest line in India during that period. In recognition of his benevolent activities and

enlightened administration, the Government of India bestowed on him the title of C. I E. in 1889. In 1895 he was made a K. C. I. E. a very significant honour to the ruler of a small State. He died in 1903 at the age of 52 and was succeeded by his eldest son Satchidananda Tribuban Dev. This ruler had a scientific bent of mind and was well-versed in Physics, Chemistry, Mineralogy, Metallurgy, and Astronomy. He also composed some treatises of science. He improved the water-supply of the town of Deogarh and introduced hydro-electric system by which the palace and other important places as well as the cloth loom, sugar mills, etc., got power supply. He was a prolific writer and produced several literary works. He also got some Sanskrit dramas translated into Oriya. During his administration in October 1905, Bamanda came under the jurisdiction of the Orissa Division in Bengal. He died in 1916 and was succeeded by his son Raja Dibya-shankar Sudhal Dev. This ruler had a premature death in 1920 and after him his son Bhanuganga Tribhuban Dev succeeded to the Gadi. During his regime the State of Bamanda merged with Orissa on January 1, 1948 and became a part of the district of Sambalpur.

(ii) Rairakhol

The early history of Rairakhol is not known to us. The place named Radha Pamvali Kandara found in the Somavamsi charter of the 10th century A.D. is identified by some scholar with modern Rairakhol. In later period, a branch of the Kadamba ruling family of Bonai ruled over Rairakhol. They were subordinate to the Ganga rulers of Bamanda till the later part of the 17th century when both Bamanda and Rairakhol became feudatory states of Maharaj Baliar Singh of Sambalpur. It is traditionally believed that Bamanda and Rairakhol were in hostile terms with each other for a long time. On one occasion, it is said, the entire Rairakhol family was annihilated and only a young boy survived the massacre. The boy was taken care of by a Sudh woman and after coming of age succeeded in getting back the territory.

Very little, however, is known about Rairakhol before 19th century. Raja Bishan Chandra Jenamoni succeeded to the Gadi as a minor king in 1825. He was the 14th in descent from the founder of the Kadamba family.

Rairakhol was not at first included in the list of Feudatory States in the Central Provinces. The Chief, however, was conspicuous for his loyalty in 1857, and in 1866 an adoption 'Sanad' was granted. The State was recognised as a Feudatory State by the British Government in 1867 and received a 'Sanad' accordingly. It was transferred in October 1905 from the Central Provinces to the Orissa Division in Bengal. He was succeeded by Raja Gour Chandra Deo, and the latter by Raja Vira Chandra Jadumoni Deo Jenamoni. During his rule Rairakhol merged with Orissa on January 1, 1948 and was tagged to Dhenkanal. It became a part of Sambalpur from 26 October 1949.

APPENDIX I

On the Diamonds, Gold ores of the Sambalpur district by V. Ball, M. A., F. G. S., Geological Survey of India

DIAMONDS

First discoveries unknown

When, or by whom, diamonds were first discovered in Sambalpur is quite unknown. As in similar cases in many other parts of the old world, an impenetrable haze shrouds the ancient discoveries from our view.

Such evidence as exists tends to the belief, that the search for diamonds was carried on, under a rude system, for many centuries before the year 1850, when the British took possession of the district from the late Rajah, Narain Singh.

Mr. Motte's visit to Sambalpur

So far as I have been able to ascertain, the first published notice of the subject is to be found in the narrative of a journey to Sambalpur, which was undertaken by Mr. Motte in the year 1766*. The object of this journey was to initiate a regular trade in diamonds with Sambalpur, Lord Clive being desirous of employing them as a convenient means for remitting money to England.

His attention had been drawn to Sambalpur by the fact that the Rajah had a few months previously sent a messenger with a rough diamond weighing 16½ carats, as a sample, together with an invitation to the Governor to depute a trustworthy person to purchase diamonds regularly.

The Governor proposed Mr. Motte to make the speculation a joint concern, in which writes the latter: "I was to hold a third, he the other two, all the expenses to be borne by the concern. The proposal dazzled me, and I caught at it, without reflecting on the difficulties of the march, or on the barbarity of the country &c".

In spite of his life being several times in danger from attacks by the natives, the loss of some of his followers by fever, and a varied chapter of other disasters, Mr. Motte was enabled to collect a considerable amount of interesting information about the country. Owing to the disturbed state of Sambalpur town, however, he was only able to purchase a few diamonds. After much prolonged negotiation, he was permitted to visit the junction of the Rivers Hebe (Ebe) and Mahanadi, where the

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*. Asiatic Annual Register, London, 1799.

diamonds were said to be found. A servant of the Rajah's who was in charge there informed him that "it was his business to search in the River Hebe, after the rains, for red earth, washed down from the mountains, in which earth diamonds were always found. I asked him if it would not be better to go to the mountains and dig for that earth. He answered that it had been done, until the Mahrattas exacted a tribute from the country, and to do so now would only increase that tribute. He showed me several heaps of the red earth-some pieces, of the size of small pebbles, and so on, till it resembles coarse brick dust-which had been washed, and the diamonds taken out*.

Lieutenant Kittoe, 1838

The next mention of Sambalpur diamonds is to be found in Lieutenant Kittoe's account † of his journey, in the year 1838, through the forests of Orissa. He speaks of the people as being too apathetic and indolent to search for diamonds. His remarks on the localities where they occur seem to be derived from Mr. Motte's account, to which indeed, he refers.

Major Ouseley, 1840

Although published in the same number of the Asiatic Society's Journal‡, we find a paper dated two years later, or in 1840, which was written by Major Ouseley, on the "Process of washing for gold-dust and diamonds at Heera Khoound". In this we meet the following statement. "The Heera Khoond is that part of the river which runs south of the islands. The diamonds and gold dust are said to be washed down the Ebe River, about four miles above the Heera Khoond, but as both are procurable as far as Sonepur, I am inclined to think there may be veins of gold along the Mahanadi".

No mention is made by Major Ouseley of the system of throwing a bund across one of the channels, as is described on a following page, but from my enquiries, I gathered that that method of washing was in practice for many years before the period of Major Ouseley's visit. He described the operations of individual washers not the combined efforts of the large number, which made that washing successful.

The diamonds found became the property of the Rajah, while the gold was the perquisite of the washers, who sold it for from twelve to fifteen rupees per tola.

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*. This description suggests laterite as the matrix from which the diamonds were proximately derived. In this connection it may be noted that one of the principal sources of Cape diamonds is said to be a superficial ferruginous conglomerate.

†. J. A. S. B., VIII, 1839, P. 375.

‡. Ibid, P. 1057.

Central Provinces Gazetteer :

In the Central Provinces Gazetteer it is stated that "during the period of native rule some fifteen or twenty villages were granted rent-free to a class called Jharas, in consideration of their undertaking the search for diamonds. When the country lapsed in 1850, these villages were resumed". So far as can be gathered from the various sources of information, large and valuable diamonds have been occasionally met with, but the evidence on this point is somewhat conflicting. I do not think, however, that what we know is altogether consistent with the statement in the Gazetteer, that "The best stones ever found here were thin and flat, with flaws in them".

Largest diamonds found

Local tradition speaks of one large diamond, which was found during the Mahratta occupation. Its size made its discovery too notorious, otherwise it would in all probability, like many other smaller ones, found at that time, never have reached the hands of the Mahratta Agent. It is said to have weighed two tolas and two mashas (at ten mashas to the tola) [1], which would be about 316·2 grains troy, or expressed in carats 99·3. It would be impossible, of course, to make any estimate of the value of a rough stone of this size, regarding the purity, colour & C., of which nothing is known.

Another diamond, in the possession of Narain Singh, is said to have weighed about a tola the equivalent of which, calculated as above, would be 45·35 carats. Already one of 16·5 carats has been mentioned as having been sent to Calcutta in 1766. One large but slightly flawed diamond, which I saw in the possession of a native in Sambalpur, was valued in Calcutta, after cutting, at Rs, 2,500. Mr Emanuel, in his work on Diamonds and Precious Stones, gives some particulars regarding the diamonds of Sambalpur, but the limited information at his disposal does not appear to have been very accurate. He records one diamond of 84 grains having been found within the period of British rule, but does not mention his authority. There are said to be a good many diamonds still in the hands of the wealthier natives in Sambalpur.

Of course, large diamonds such as those above mentioned were to have weighed, however, two to four rutties, equal on an average, say, to the thirtieth part of a tola, or 4·7 grains=1·48 carats. In he Geological Museum, there is at present a diamond which was sent to the Asiatic Society from Sambalpur by Major Ouseley. It weighs only 855 gras.= ·26 carats.

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1. (One masha—14·37 grains troy), properly speaking there are 12 mashas in a standard tola.

Classification of diamonds

As is usual, I believe, in all parts of India, the diamonds were classed as follows :—

(I) Brahman—White, pure water
(II) Kshatriya—Rose or reddish
(III) Vaisya—Smoky
(IV) Sudra—Dark and impure

Method of Washing

From personal enquiry from the oldest of the Jharas, or washers, at the village of Jhunan, and from various other sources, I have gathered the following details as to the manner in which the operations were carried on in the Rajah's time :—

In the centre of the Mahanadi, near Jhunan, there is an island called Hira Khund, * which is about four miles long, and for that distance separates the waters of the river in to two channels, as indicated on the accompanying map.

In each year, about the beginning of March or even later when other work was slack and the level of the water was approaching its lowest, a large number of people, according to some of my informants, as many as five thousand, assembled, and as the result of a considerable amount of labour threw a bound across the mouth of the northern channel, its share of water being thus deflected into the southern. In the stagnant pools left in the former, sufficient water remained to enable the washers to wash the gravel accumulated between the rocks in their rule wooden trays and cradles.

Upon women seems to have fallen the chief burden of the actual washing, while the men collected the stuff. The implements employed and the method of washing were similar to those commonly adopted in gold washing, save only that the finer gravel was not thrown away until it had been thoroughly searched for diamonds. Whatever gold was found became the property of the washer, as already stated. Those, who were so fortunate as to find a valuable stone were rewarded by being given a village. According to some accounts, the washers, generally, held their villages and lands rent-free but I think it most unlikely that all who were engaged in the operations should have done so.

So far as I could gather, the people did not regard their, in a manner, enforced services as involving any great hardship, they gave me to understand that they would be glad to see the annual search re-established on the old terms. Indeed, it is barely possible to conceive

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* Lit Diamond mine

of the condition of the Jharas having been at any time worse than it is at present. No doubt the gambling element, which may be said to have been ever present in work of the above nature, commended it to the native mind.

According to Mr. Emanuel, those people show traces of Negro blood, and hence it has been concluded that they are the "descendants of slaves imported by one of the Conquerors of India". They are, however, I should say, an aboriginal tribe, showing neither in their complexions, character of their features, nor hair, the slightest trace of a Negro origin.

Indian Government become proprietors—

When Sambalpur was taken over in 1850, the Government offered to lease out the right to seek for diamonds. And in 1856 a notification appeared in the Gazette describing the prospect in somewhat glowing terms *. For a short time the lease was held by a European at the very low rate of two hundered rupees per annum, but as it was given up voluntarily, it may be concluded that the former did not make it pay. The facts that the Government resumed possession of the rent-free villages, and that the Rajah's operations were carried on without any original outlay, materially altered the case, and rendered the employment of a considerable amount of capital, then as it would be now, an absolute necessity.

No diamonds found recently—

Within the past few years, statements have gone the round of the Indian papers to the effect that diamonds are occasionally found now by the gold-washers of Sambalpur. All my enquiries failed to elicit a

* NOTIFICATION—Persons desirous of working the valuable diamond mine of the Mahanadi are hereby informed that, after the 1st of January 1857, the privilege will be leased to any one who shall be considered to have made the most eligible offer for the same.

2. Besides precious stones, gold is to be met within considerable quantities and the party who may rent the privilige of working the diamond mines will be entitled to appropriate all diamonds, precious stones, and gold that he may find in the bed of that river within the limits of the Sambalpur Division during the period of his lease.

3. Unless a proportional inducement be offered, a lease will not be granted for a period of more than three years but applicants are requested to state at what rate per annum they are agreeable to rent the mines, and how many years lease they are desirous of obtaining, with particulars of all modifications they may wish made in the conditions now set forth.

4. Parties proposing to rent the mines must be prepared to lodge in the treasury at Sambalpur one year's rent in advance as security for the fulfilment of the term of the lease taken up by them, and the rent will be demanded in three instalments yearly. If any time during the lease, the period of one year, calculated from the date of payment of the last instalment, be allowed to elapse without the payment of an instalment, the security money shall be forfeited and the lease considerared to have expired.

single authentic case, and the gold-washers I spoke to and saw at work assured me that the statements were incorrect. Moreover, they did not appear to expect to find any, as I did not observe that they even examined the gravel when washing.

Source of the Diamonds—

With regard to the origin of the diamonds, the geological structure of the country leaves but little room for doubt as to the source from whence they are derived. Coincident with their occurrence is that of a group of rocks which has been shown to be referable to the Vindhyan series, certain members of which series are found in the vicinity of all the known diamond-yielding localities in India [1], and, in the cases of actual rock-working, are found to constitute the original matrix of the gems.

In seveial of the previous accounts, the belief is either stated or implied that the diamonds are brought into Mahanadi by its large tributary the Ebe. It would, not of course, help the point I am endeavouring to establish to say that the Ebe, at least within our area, except indirectly[2], is not fed by waters which pass over Vindhyan rocks, but I have the positive assurance of the natives that diamonds have not been found in that river, although gold is and has been regularly washed for. On the other hand, diamonds have been found in the bed of the Mahanadi as far west Chandpur and at other intermediate places, well within the aiea which is exclusively occupied by the quartzites, shales, and limestones of Vindhyan age.

Hira Khund—

The mere fact that place Hira Khund, where the diamonds were washed, is on metamorphic rocks, may be readily explained by the physical features of the ground. The rocky nature of the bed there and the double channel caused by the Island afforded unusual facilities for, in the first place, the retention of the diamonds brought down by the river, and secondly, for the operations by which the bed could on one side be laid bare and the gravel washed by the simple contrivance known to the natives.

Rocks similar to diamond matrix at Panna and Banaganpilli—

It is impossible to say at present which the actual bed or beds may be from whence the diamonds have been derived, as there is no record or

1. Conf—Medlicott, Bundelkund, Men G. S. I., Vol. II, P. 65
Conf—Mallet, Vindhyan Series, Id, Vol. VII, P. 69,
Conf—King, Kadaphah and Karnul formations, id. Vol. VIII, P. 87.

2. By a few streams which rise in an isolated outlying hill called Gotwaki. It should be stated, however, that one of the tributaries of the Ebe, the Icha, far away in Gangpur, is said to produce diamonds, but the statement needs confirmation and the geology of that part of the country is at present quite unknown. Near its sources, far away in Chota Nagpur, I have heard the Ebo spken of as the Hira Nad

appearance of the rock ever having been worked, but from the general lithological resemblance of the sand stones and shales of the Barapahar hills, and the outlier at Borla with the diamond-bearing beds and their associates at Panna in Bundikhana and Bangapilli in Karnul, I have very little hesitation in pointing to these Rocks as in all probability including the matrix. Above Padampur the Mahanadi runs through rocks of this age, and I should therefore strongly urge upon any one who may hereafter embark upon the undertaking of searching for diamonds in Sambalpur to confine his operations, in the first instance, to the streams and small rivers which rise in the Barapahar hills and join the Mahanadi on the south. Besides the obvious advantage of being, as I believe would be found to be the case, close to the matrix, these streams would, I think, be found to contain facilities for obtaining a sufficient head of water for washing purposes. The rocks would require but a few labourers, and could be carried on for a much longer period every year, say for eight or nine months, than would be possible in the case of the washings in the bed of the Mahanadi itself.

According to the accounts received by me, the southern channel of the Mahanadi used not to be emptied in the Rajah's time but from various causes I should expect it to yield, proportionally, a larger number of diamonds than the northern. In the first place, the stronger current in it would be more efficient in removing the substance of less specific gravity than diamonds, while the rocks and deep holes in it afford admirable means for the retention of the latter. Again it is in direct contact with the sandstone and shales (presumebly diamond-bearing) of the outlying ridge at Borla. Owing to the greater body of water to be dealt with, it would be found to be more difficult to divert them that which flows in the northern channel, but the result in a greater harvest of the diamonds would probably far more than compensate for the greater expenditure incurred.

Similar rocks further south not known to be diamond-bearing

In the country to the south of Sambalpur, in Karial and Nowagarh where rocks of similar age occur to those of the Barapahar hills, I failed to find any traditional record of diamonds having ever been found or searched for. It is just possible, however, that the names of several villages in which the word Hira (diamond) occurs may have reference to some long forgotten discovery.

Pebbles

In addition to diamonds, pebbles of Beryl, Topaz, Carbuncle, Amethyst, Cornelian, and clear quartz used to be collected in the Mahanadi, but I have not seen either sapphires or rubies. It is probable that the matrix of these, or most of them, exists in the metamorphic rocks and is therefore distinct from that of the diamonds.

GOLD

In all probability gold occurs pretty generally throughout those portions of the district in which metamorphic rocks prevail. So far as I have been able to gather from personal observation, the washers confine themselves to the beds of the Mahanadi and Ebe, but in the rains they are said to leave the larger rivers in the small jungle-streams.

Gold washed for within Talcher boundary

In the Ebe, below Tahood, I saw a party of gold-washers encamped on the sand. The places where they were actually washing were the area occupied by rocks of Talchir age, but whether the gold was proximately derived from the Talchirs or had been brought down by the river, as is possible, from the metamorphic rocks, a short distance higher up, I am unable to say.

There is of course no *prima facie* improbability in the Talchir rocks containing gold. On the contrary the bolder bed, including as it does, such a larger proportion of materials directly derived from the metamorphic rocks, might naturally be expected to contain gold. In the original description of the Talchir coal field the following passage occurs : "Gold is occasionally washed in the Tikaria river, and was also a few years since obtained from the sands of the Ouli". The latter case is rather interesting, since the localities are in a sandstone country through which the Ouli mainly flows*. In this connection it may be mentioned that in Australia, quite recently, a conglomerate bed of carboniferous age has been found to be auriferous [1].

Methods of washing, & c.

As to the methods employed by, and the earnings of, the gold-washers the remarks made in a paper by me on the gold of Singhbhum [2] apply equally to Sambalpur, and need not be repeated here.

LEAD ORES

Galena at Jhunan

On the occasion of my first visit to Sambalpur in 1874, Captain Bowie, at that time Deputy Commissioner of the district, showed me some specimens of galena which had remained in the possession of the Tehsildar and other residents since before the occupation of the district in 1850. The history of this galena appeared to be as follows :

First discovery

It was discovered in the bed of the Mahanadi at Jhunan, 10 miles west of Sambalpur in the Rajah's time and was at first extracted to small extent by the people and used as a substitute for Surma or antimony for anointing the eyes. Suddenly, however, the Rajah, Narain

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* Mem. G. S. I., Vol. I, P. 88

1. Vide Geolg. Map. 1877, P. 286

2. Records, Vol. II, P. 11

Singh, becoming afraid that the discovery might attract the notice of Europeans, ordered the excavation to be stopped and the lode to be covered up and concealed.

Rediscovery

During the 25 years or so which had elapsed since that time, the river has somewhat shifted its channel, and sand and clay had been deposited against the bank where, according to the villager's recollection, the lode was originally exposed. By Captain Bowie's orders a party of these villagers were set to redisoover the position, and on the 27th December we visited the spot and found that several trenches had been dug in the sand, these, owing to the influx of water and a shifting layer of quick sand, had failed to lay bare the face of rock, but from the fragments of stone brought up it was apparent that the lode had not been stuck. The rocks seen in the bed of the river consist chiefly of a course granular-looking granitic gneiss, which strikes from about north-west to south-east. Observing some small veins of quartz to run with the strike, it seemed probable that the lode would do so too, and I accordingly laid out a line for a new trench, which resulted a few days later in the re-discovery of the deposit.

Deposit a true lode

Among the first specimens of galena brought into Sambalpur was one weighing 1 maund 6 seers 4 chittacks, of which about one-half consisted of galena, the remainder being made up of portions of the quartz gangue and sides of the lode [1]. In some of these first specimens, the presence of antimony was apparent, and there were also traces of the carbonates of copper. On revisiting the locality, I was able to satisfy myself that the deposit occurred as a true lode which, though striking, apparently with the surrounding granitic gneiss rocks, has a different underlie, and cuts across the plains of their bedding and foliation. At this stage, what I subsequently found to be the case was not apparent, viz., that the lode does not rise to the surface or outcrop of the gneiss above the bed of the river, but that it commences somewhat abruptly several feet below. In the portion of the lode exposed, which was about six feet in length, the distance between the walls varied from 16 to 19 inches. The strike was from 35° north-of-west to 35° south-of-east with an underlie of 45° to 35° east-of-north, that of the surrounding rocks being in places 60°.

Nature of gangue

The gangue consists of quartz, which is permeated in every direction by nests and strings of galena. In places massive ore stretches from wall to wall. Besides hydrated peroxide of iron which forms a kind of gossan with the quartz. I found no trace of any foreign minerals in the gangue.

1. This fine sample is now in the Geological Museum

Silver

On assay, the galena *yielded 12 oz. dwts. of silver to the ton of lead*. This, though a small percentage, would be sufficient under favourable circumstances to yield a profit on the cost of extraction.

Preliminary exploration

On the whole, the aspect of the lode, as seen at that time in the bank of the river, was so promising, that, at Captain Bowie's request, I laid out a system of trenches by which its extension inland from the river might be proved. Subsequently, a small grant of money was made by the Central Provinces Government for the purpose of making some experimental excavation and operations were forthwith commenced. Just before leaving Sambalpur in April 1875, I again visited the locality to see what progress had been made. I found that a trench about 20 feet deep had been dug through the alluvium some 60 years from the bank of the river, but it had not been carried to a sufficient depth to lay bare the rock throughout. On this occasion I first found out what I have above noticed, namely, that the lode does not, on the scarped river face rise to the outcrop of the rock. This, of course, renders the chance of striking it by mere superficial trenches in the rock very much smaller than it would otherwise be.

In the absence of any one who could take charge of the work on the spot, I did not recommend any operations in the river bed itself, as if injudiciously carried out, they would not improbably injure the prospects of successful mining hereafter by destroying all trace of the lode and leaving in its place an excavation open to the floods. Such work as had been done was, from the want of skilled guidance, not of a conclusive character. I therefore could not recommend any further outlay being incurred on the exploration, and accordingly nothing more has been done in the matter since 1875.

Galena at Padampur

The above is not the only locality in Sambalpur where galena has been found. Twenty-four miles farther up the Mahanadi, in the bed of the river under the village of Padampur, strings and small nests of galena occur somewhat irregularly in a bed of Vindhyan limestone. This deposit does not appear to exist in sufficient abundance to become of any economic importance.

Carbonate of lead

To the north of Sambalpur, near Talpuchia on the Ebe, some rolled pebbles, consisting of a mixture of the oxide and carbonate of lead, have been found. Whence they were originally derived is uncertain, but I think it possible that the matrix may exist in a small hill to the north of Talpuchia, which consists of fault-rock and gossan.

APPENDIX II

NOTE ON THE GURU FAMILY OF THE KINGS OF SAMBALPUR *

The Purohits of Shankarma, a village lying about four miles to the north of Sambalpur town, are reputed to be the most ancient Brahmin family of the district if not of all Western Orissa. Since the formation of the Sambalpur Raj, which later became the sovereign power of the neighbouring eighteen Garjats the eldest member of the eldest line of this family used to be the Guru—spiritual preceptor of the Raja of the time. Every year on the Dashara day, the Raja used to step down as the Senapati—Commander of his forces, and as a mark of reverence used to install his Guru on the throne with due ceremony and festivities. Thereafter, the Raja, dressed as Senapati and riding a horse, would lead to the Samlai temple a procession with the Guru in royal robes, holding the royal sword and seated on the State Palanquin, the state retinue and members of the public playing bands and singing the glories of the Raja. After Darshan and offerings and prayers to the Deity, the party used to return to the palace, where the Guru-Raja would with appropirate ceremony hand back the kingship to his disciple.

In the year 1849, the Sambalpur Raj lapsed to the British for failure of male heirs of its last Ruler, shortly whereafter, the Purohits shifted from the town to the village mentioned above.

In 1950, Shri Achyutananda Purohit, a member of the eldest line of this family, was sent by the Government as a delegate to represent India at the International Congress of Comparative Law held in London, where he earned high honours as deputy vice-president of the International Academy and also as president of the Droit Oriental.

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* This note has been contributed by Sri Achyutananda Purohit.

APPENDIX III*

PADMASAMBHAVA

Padmasambhava, the great Guru of Tibet, is known from Tibetan-tradition as the adopted son of Indrabhuti, the Raja of Sambhal (Sambal-pur) in Oddiyana or Orissa. In Vajrayana Buddhism the parentage of great Siddhas is invariably kept concealed and that is why Indra-bhuti is not openly declared as the father of Padmasambhava. The Tibetan scriptures narrate that Indrabhuti found a baby floating on a thousand petalled lotus in the tank of his garden within the premises of his palace and, as such, named the baby as Padmasambhava and himself being childless adopted him as his son. The story has been described, on the basis of original sources, by Waddell in his book "Lamaism" at pp. 280 ff. This book was published from London in 1895. The biography of Padmasambhava has been preserved in the writings of his chief disciple, the Tibetan lady Yeshey Tshogyal who is regarded as the incarnation of Saraswati, the goddess of learning. Excerpts from her writing have been rendered in to English by the late Sardar Bahadur S. W. Laden La, C. B. E., F. R. C. S. with the assistance of Lama Sonam Senge. The late Professor W. Y. Evans Wentz has published a biography of Padmasambhava on the basis of the work of Lady Yeshey Tshogyal. This biography constitutes a part of his famous work "The Tibetan Book of the Great Liberation" published by the Oxford University Press in 1964. In all available sources Guru Padma-sambhava is represented as the adopted son of Indrabhuti (also called Indrabodhi), the Raja of Urgyan (Uddiyan, Oddiyan; in some work called Odivisa) . There has been some confusion among scholars in identifying Urgyan or Uddiyan because of a geographical mistake commit-ted by Lady Yeshey. She locates Urgyan to the west of Bodhgaya and this led Waddell to identify this land in modern Afghanistan in the Swat Valley. In the "Chaturasiti Siddha Pravritti", Indrabhuti is mentioned as the Raja of Odivisa which cannot be other than Orissa. This work is now preserved in Tibetan in the Bstanhgyur Catalogue (86.1) pre-pared by Dr. P. Cordier. In the Buddhist Sadhan Mala, Uddiyana is mentioned as Uddyana and in the Hindu Kalika Purana Udiyana Pitha is mentioned as Udrapitha. There are four inscriptions of the time of Kapilendra Dev wherein Orissa is referred to as Udiyana or Odiyana. So Indrabhuti must be taken as the Raja of Orissa and not of Afghanistan as some scholars even at present are inclined to believe.

Dr. L. A. Waddell who in his book "Lamaism" placed Uddiyan in the Swat Valley had to change his view in his later book "The Buddhism of Tibet" (Published in 1934). He identified Singala where Padma-sambhava married as "Simhapura of Hiuen Tsang which adjoined Udayan or Udyana".

* Dr. N. K. Sahu has contributed this note.

Padmasambhava married the princess Bhasadhara (the light Holder), the daughter of king Chandrakumar of Singala. This Singala cannot be the island of Ceylon as explained by the late Gustave-Charles Toussaint in his Le Diet de Padma (Paris 1933) p. 491. This scholar considers Singala to refer to a continental country not far from Udyana (or Urgyan) and identified it with Simhapura. In fact, in the Tibetan translation of Manjusri Mulatantra, Simhapura is always mentioned as Singhala. The late Sardar Bahadur S. W. Laden La while commenting on the word 'Singala' states that "this may be what is now the Guntur district of the Madras Presidency rather than Ceylone. Singala is the same as Simhapura (modern Singupuram) in Srikakulam district of Andhra Pradesh.

In Pag Sam Jon Zang by Sumpa Mkhan Po (Edited by S. C. Das) Singala is represented as Zahor. According to this and several other Tibetan works Indrabhuti was the king of Sambhal in Uddiyan. Sumpa, Lama Taranath and others mention two important territories in Udaiyan-Sambhal and Lanka. (See B. Bhatacharya "Sadhanmala" Vol. II introduction). Sambhal is no other than modern Sambalpur (the word "Pur" being an addition to it during the Chauhan rule). Lakshmikara, the sister of Indrabhuti, married Prince Jalendra of Lanka which can be identified with modern Sonepur in Balangir district (see also Balangir District Gazetteer pp. 47 and 496).

Indrabhuti is the propounder of Vajrayana Buddhism. He was the first Siddha to identify Buddha with Jagannath and he was the worshipper of Jagannath whom he prays at several places of his famous work Jnana Siddhi. Before Indrabhuti there was no conception of Jagannath as a god to be worshipped. In Sanskrit literature Jagannath as a deity is unknown before Jnana Siddhi. Jagannath mentioned in the Shantiparva of the Mahabharata of Bangabasi edition and even in early publication of Bangabasi edition is an interpolation as this is not found in Poona edition or Kumbakonam edition and even in early publication of Bangabasi edition.

Puri (Purushottama Puri) is the seat of Purushottama and not of Jagannath. In the 10th century A. D. a religious revolution synthesised Jagannath of Sambalpur with Purushottama of Puri.

CHAPTER III

PEOPLE

34. Population

The population of the district of Sambalpur according to 1961 Census is 1,508,686 of which 756,163 are males and 752,523 are females. The district comprises an area of 6,764·6 square miles or 17,520 3 squ re km. which is 11·74 per cent of the State area. Its population is 8·60 per cent of the total population of Orissa. In area and population the district ranks second and fourth, respectively among the districts of Orissa. For administrative convenience, the district is divided into 6 subdivisions and 36 police-stations. Subdivisionwise and police-stationwise distribution of population has been furnished in Chapter I.

The density of population is 223 persons per square mile, which is below the State average of 292. The rural and urban densities are 207 and 2,721 respectively. Considerable areas are sparsely populated as they are mostly covered with forests and hills.

The following table shows the distribution of male and female with density of population in each of the subdivisions of the district.

Name of subdivision	Area		Population		Population		
	Sq. km.	Sq. mile	Per Sq. Km	Per Sq. mile	Total	Male	Female
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Sambalpur	4382·3	1692	116	301	510,077	259,206	250,871
2. Bargarh	2689·1	1038·3	133	343	356,350	177,162	179,188
3. Deogarh	2703·9	1044	44	115	120,213	60,043	60,170
4. Kuchinda	2445	944	54	141	132,726	66,186	66,540
5. Rairakhol	2157·5	833	24	63	52,548	26,324	26,224
6. Padampur	3142·5	1213·3	107	278	336,772	167,242	169,530
District Total ..	17,520·3	6764·6	86	223	1,508,686	756,163	752,523

1 Square mile=2·590 square kilometres

Growth of Population

The earliest census of the district was taken in 1872 and showed the population of Sambalpur as now constituted, as 506,834. The next Census of 1881 recorded the population as 653,201 an increase of 28·9 per cent which was far in excess of the natural growth of the population, and which may perhaps be partly explained by the incompleteness of the first Census. The Census of 1891 showed a satisfactory increase of population to the extent of 13·8 per cent, mostly due to prosperous years of the decade. The census of 1901 was taken in the year after the district had been visited by the severe famine of 1900 and the mortality resulting from the epidemics of fever, smallpox and cholera which came as the after-math of famine. Death rate in this particular year rose to the appalling figure of 108 per mille. The disress was very acute, particularly in the ex-Zamindari area of Borasambar. Consequently, the increase of population for the decade was only 3·2 per cent.

In spite of these calamities, the birth-rate rose abruptly from 30·0 in 1901 to 46·6 in 1902 per thousand. The birth rate continued at a high level throughout the remaining years of the first decade of the present century, while the death-rate was low in all these years except in 1908 when death-rate increased due to epidemic diseases. The effect of low death-rate and high birth-rate combined with a succession of good annual harvest removed the effects of the famine and the district showed addition to the population to an extent of 15·5 per cent during the decade 1901—1910.

The first seven years of the decade beginning with 1911 were prosperous. The harvests were good and the birth rate was well over death-rate. The birth-rate reached the highest point of 46·7 in 1914. The year 1918 was very unhealthy, cholera and influenza epidemics raised the death-rate to 56·6 per thousand, while the birth-rate was much lower. Cholera broke out again in 1919. A severe flood affected 60 villages of the district in 1920. In spite of these calamities the district did not show an absolute decrease of population as most of the districts of Orissa did during this decade. A small increase of 41,474 persons or 4·5 per cent was recorded during the decade.

The decade 1921—30 started with a year of struggle for recovery from the calamities of the previous decade. Though the district was not completely free from epidemics, such as cholera and smallpox, series of good harvests helped the people to recoup the past deficiencies. The population increased by 112,290 or 11·8 per cent.

During 1931—40, the district suffered considerably from the out-breaks of epidemics like cholera and smallpox. Heavy deaths resulted from cholera as well as from diarrhoea and dysentery in 1932. Smallpox

in 1935 and cholera in 1936 broke out in virulent form. Steps were taken to check these epidemics and preventive measures were undertaken throughout the district as a result of which public health greatly improved and there was no set back in the growth of population. Collapse of world finance during the early years of the decade did not affect growth of population.

In 1937-38 the Orient Paper Mills were established at Brajarajnagar which produced some industrial employment. Harvests were good and there was no shortage of foodgrains anywhere. The decade records a growth of population by 12·6 per cent.

During 1941—50 the district suffered from the effects of the second World War. During the first three years of the decade there was virulent epidemic of cholera, when the death-rate particularly in 1942 rose. Sporadic out-breaks of smallpox and malarial fever were reported during the decade. The district benefited by harvests of bumper crops in most of these years. Although general rise in price level and other war conditions adversely affected the material conditions, the position improved considerably with the execution of the multipurpose project at Hirakud starting in 1948 estimated to cost about Rs. 92 crores. Many profitable side occupations developed in the wake of this great project. The district gained by 8·3 per cent of population during the decade.

The decade 1951—60 was marked by various developmental activities. The completion of the Hirakud Dam Project created a gross irrigation potential of 3·80 lakh acres. The installed capacity of the power generated by Hirakud Power House is estimated to be about 270,000 K. W. All the urban areas and some of the rural areas of the district were electrified during this decade. In the industrial field, the reputed handloom industry of the district made rapid strides and exported its products to foreign countries, particularly to the U S. A. The establishment of Indian Aluminium Factory and its ancillary industries at Hirakud marked the beginning of large scale industrialization. Engineering and Medical Colleges at Burla were established during this decade. Besides, the extensive roads connecting all the important places of the district, the railway line connecting Sambalpur with Bargarh subdivision and beyond was completed. There was temporary set-back in the prosperity of the district due to the devastating flood of 1960. Population figures of the district stood at 1,508,686, a remarkable increase of 15·9 per cent, the highest during the last six decades.

During the last 90 years, the population of the district has increased from 506,834 in 18 2 to 1,508,686 in 1961, a gain of 1,001,852 persons.

35. Migration

Immigration

The movement of population within the district, from one district to another within the State and beyond the State of Orissa and country are mainly due to economic reasons and socialities like marriage. The following table gives a picture of immigrants according to 1961 Census. The percentage to the total number of persons and to males and females separately are also shown in brackets below the absolute figures:

	Persons	Males	Females
Persons born at place of enumeration during 1961 Census.	929,569 (61·6%)	598,569 (79·2%)	330,940 (44·0%)
Persons born elsewhere in the district	452,955 (30·0%)	104,281 (13·8%)	348 674 (46·3%)
Persons born in other districts of Orissa.	71,591 (4·8%)	26,365 (3·5%)	45,226 (6·0%)
Born in other States of India ..	47,196 (3·1%)	21,769 (2·9%)	25,427 (3·4%)
Born in countries outside India .	4,840 (0·3%)	4,085 (0·5%)	755 (0·1%)
Unclassified ..	2,595 (0·2%)	1,094 (0·1%)	1,501 (0·2%)

The apparent large scale movement of women is due to a married girl leaving the place of birth to go to her husband's house in another village. 8·4 per cent were new comers of whom 4·8 per cent came from other districts of Orissa and 3·6 per cent from other States of India. There were 4,840 foreigners brought by Hirakud Dam Project, Belpahar Refractories, Orient Paper Mills, Indian Allumimium Co. Missonaries, etc.

Migrants within the district form the highest percentage in all the police-stations of the district except Brajarajnagar, where the percentage of migrants from outside the State is the highest. The reason is that it provides industrial employment and there by attracts many outsiders,

Duration of residence is a factor which gives a picture of the nature of migration. The following statement shows the period of residence of the immigrants.

Duration of residence	Born elsewhere in the district of enumeration		Born outside the district but within the State of enumeration		Born outside the State but within the country		Born outside the country	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Female
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Less than 1 year.	7,801	9,969	3,364	2,609	3,191	1,996	1,310	58
1—5 years	37,207	66,690	8,237	10,628	7,431	5,495	649	155
6—10 years	17,994	50,074	3,850	6,522	3,037	3,721	110	124
11—15 years	9,488	46,40S	2,862	5,856	2,883	3,568	293	57
16 years and over.	27,753	165,146	7,535	18,537	4,711	9,804	634	43
Period not stated.	4,038	10,387	517	1,074	516	843	1,089	318

The large number of female immigrants is caused by marriage while that of males is for better economic pursuits. But marriage is not the sole attraction which results in such a large number of female immigrants. Some of the females also participated in occupations like their male counterparts :

State		Immigration		Migration	
		Male	Female	Male	Female
Assam	..	164	177	6,844	5,200
Madhya Pradesh	..	6,620	15,804	Not available	
Bihar	..	4,505	4,290	2,581	2,913
West Bengal	..	2,531	1,246	Not available	
Uttar Pradesh	..	2,288	505	Not available	
Punjab	..	1,541	884	14	39
Andhra Pradesh	..	1,284	887	6	7
Gujarat	..	737	572	Not available	
Rajasthan	..	588	126	..	..
Outside India. — Pakistan	..	3,728	614	Not available	
Outside India. — Nepal	..	316	104	Not available	

Immigrants from the neighbouring Madhya Pradesh and emigrants to Assam are the highest in number. The people migrated to Assam mostly to find employment in tea plantations. Immigration from Madhya Pradesh is mainly for labour. Immigration from Andhra Pradesh is for agriculture and for rickshaw pulling. Immigration from other States is for trade and business. Large immigration from Pakistan is due to settlement of displaced persons from East Pakistan.

36. Distribution of Population between Urban and Rural Areas

The urban area of the district has increased from 69·9 square km. in 1951 to 109 8 square km. in 1961. Three new towns, e. g., Burla, Hirakud, and Brajarajnagar have developed during the period 1951 to 1960. The rural area has declined from 17,451·4 square km. in 1951 to 17,410·5 square km. in 1961. The district has 7 towns and 3,736 villages according to 1961 Census. The urban and rural areas of the subdivisions are given below :

Name of Subdivision	Urban area		No. of towns	Rural area		Total of villages
	Sq km	Sq. mile		Sq. km.	Sq. mile	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sambalpur	78·5	30·3	5	4,303·8	1,661·7	760
Baragarh	13·2	5·1	1	2,675·9	1,033·2	521
Deogarh	18·1	7·0	1	2,685·8	1,037	814
Kuchinda	..	..	..	2,445	944	540
Rairakhol	..	..	..	2,157·5	833	400
Padampur	..	..	..	3,142·5	1,213·3	701
District total ..	109·8	42·4	7	17,410·5	6,722·2	3,736

The classification of the towns by population in 1961 Census with variation from 1941 is given in the table below :

Name of town	Year	Persons	Decade variation	Percentage decade variation	Males	Females
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
All Classes—7 Towns						
	1941	39,884	..	..	20,307	19,577
	1951	51,838	+11,954	+29.97	27,537	24,301
	1961	115,375	+63,537	+122·56	63,955	51,420
Class III (20,000—49.999)—1 Town						
Sambalpur Municipality	1941	17,079	..	..	8,520	8.559
8.00 sq. miles	1951	23,525	+6,446	+37·74	12,813	10,712
20·72 sq. Km.	1961	38,915	+15,390	+65·42	21,112	17,803
Class IV (10,000—19,999)—4 Towns						
(1) Jharsuguda Municipality	1941	8,032	..	..	4,154	3,878
10.00 sq. miles	1951	13,405	+5,373	+66·89	7,100	6,305
25·90 sq .Km.	1961	19,227	+5,822	+43·43	10,239	8,988
(2) Brajarajnagar 3.00 sq. miles 7·77 Sq. Km.	1961	16,196	..	..	9,109	7,087
(3) Baragarh Municipality	1941	8,236	..	..	4,303	3,933
5.10 Sq. miles	1951	9,197	+961	—11·67	4,742	4,455
13·21 Sq. Km.	1961	15,375	+6,178	—67·17	8,648	6,726
(4) Burla N. A. C. 5.90 Sq. miles 15·28 Sq. Km.	1961	10,230	..	..	6,133	4,097
Class V (5,000—9,999)—2 Towns						
(1) Hirakud N. A. C. 3·40 Sq. miles 8·81 Sq. Km.	1961	8,593	..	..	5,182	3,411
(2) Deogarh Municipality	1941	6,537	..	..	3,330	3,207
7·00 Sq. miles	1951	5,711	—826	—12.64	2,882	2,829
8·13 Sq. Km.	1961	6,839	+1,128	+19·75	3,532	3,307

The number of inhabited villages which initially increased from 3,358 in 1941 to 3,426 in 1951 declined again to 3,393 in 1961. The number of villages varies from decade to decade due to various circumstances, such as merger of small hamlets with big villages or emergence of big hamlets as separate villages. The number of uninhabited villages has increased from 263 in 1951 to 343 in 1961. Moreover the number of small villages having a population of less than 500 persons are gradually decreasing in the district but it is not worth noting as the percentage is negligible. High percentage of rural population still concentrate in small villages.

Villages classified by population according to 1961 Census is given below :

Villages classified by population		Number	Population	
			Males	Females
1		2	3	4
Less than 200	..	1,358	62,224	62,996
200—499	..	1,107	181,529	185,447
500—999	..	643	219,288	225,801
1,000—1,999	..	235	159,848	156,643
2,000—4,999	..	48	66,278	64,268
5,000—9,999	..	2*	6,041	5,948

37. Displaced Persons

(i) From Pakistan

195 families of displaced persons from Pakistan were received in the district for rehabilitation during 1950. Out of them 50 families have been settled at Sambalpur town 13 at Burla, 108 at Rairakhol and 11 at Jharsuguda. A rehabilitation camp at Tamdei was created in 1964 for accomodation of 1,000 families. 732 families were received in the month of December, 1964 in the camp, out of which 229 families have gone to Dandakaranya for settlement in agricultural occupations. 166 families have remained in the camp and the others have been discharged.

(ii) From Hirakud

Due to the construction of the Hirakud Dam Project a major portion of Mahadebpali, Mura and Rampella police-stations were submerged in the Hirakud Reservoir. This made large number of persons homeless. They have been rehabilitated in different places of the district. Evacuation of the submerged area started on 16th April, 1955 and continued up to June 1957. Nearly 17,300 families were

* Barpali—Population 6,415 and Padampur—Population 5,574

evacuated. A Central Evacuation Advisory Committee was formed with leading members of the public from the submerged area and village committees were also formed in these villages to help the officers to evacuate the villages peacefully and in time.

The Hirakud Land Organisation helped the resettlers by providing reclaimed lands, periphery lands of the reservior and other waste lands and helped them to purchase lands in other parts of the district. The compensation in cash was paid to every individual whose properties were acquired for the Hirakud Project.

Originally it was contemplated to reclaim an area of 80,000 acres for resettlement of the displaced persons. But some preferred to resettle in old established villages than to come to the newly reclaimed lands. Ban on sale of rayati lands was withdrawn in the district giving much scope for the resettlers to purchase lands in other villages. So by the 31st August 1956 an area of 10,286·14 acres was reclaimed and further reclamation was stopped. 6,594·70 acres of reclaimed lands have been alloted till June 1967 to the displaced persons numbering 8,606.

Grants in form of cash and kind were being given to the displaced persons for development of the reclaimed lands. Schools, hospitals, graingolas, minor irrigation projects, roads and other development works have been done in these newly reclaimed areas for the welfare of the displaced persons.

38. Language

Oriya, the main language of the district, is spoken by 1370,133 persons or 90·82 per cent of the total population. Other modern Indian Languages spoken by the people in order of numerical strength are Hindi (33,081 persons), Urdu (6,820 persons), Bengali (5,871 persons), Telugu (4,653 persons), Gujarati (2,420 persons), Punjabi (1,886 persons), Tamil (1,270 persons), Malayalam (286 persons), Marathi (97 persons) and Kannada (60 persons), Tribal dialects like Kisan, Kui, Oraon, Mundari, Kharia, etc., are also popularly spoken by the tribal population of the district. English, Nepali and Persian are the three non-Indian languages spoken by a small number of people.

According to 1961 Census, 30 different types of languages are spoken by the people. They are given in Appendix I. Short notes on important languages and dialects are given below.

(i) Oriya

The Oriya spoken in Sambalpur district differs from that spoken in the coastal districts of Orissa. It is generally known as Sambalpuri Oriya and is spoken in western parts of Orissa comprising the districts

of Sambalpur, Balangir, Kalahandi, and Sundargarh. This language is also spoken by a large number of people in the adjacent districts of Madhya Pradesh such as Raipur Raigarh and Surguja. Linguistically, Sambalpuri Oriya is surrounded by Bhatthari in south-west and is influenced by it to a great extent. As an example of this influence, it may be pointed out that in Sambalpuri Oriya the last "." (ଅ) sound is generally dropped or not pronounced, and when there are four syllables in a word they are divided into two parts each behaving like independent words. Sometimes when words are taken from Sanskrit or literary language the last "a" (ଅ) sound is not dropped but inserted to the previous letter, such as Rakat (ରକତ୍) for Rakta (ରକ୍ତ), Patar (ପତର୍) for Patra (ପତ୍ର). Bhagat (ଭଗତ୍) for Bhakta (ଭକ୍ତ), etc. Likewise, the last "i" (ଇ) sound takes its place in the form of "e" (ଏ) before the consonant with which it is associated such as Mati (ମାଟି) as Maet (ମାଏଟ୍), Jati (ଜାତି) as Jaet (ଜାଏତ୍), Rati (ରାତି) as Raet (ରାଏତ୍), Pani (ପାଣି) as Paen (ପାଏଣ୍) etc Another example of the influence of the above languages, on Sambalpuri Oriya is found in the placing of negative participles before the verb, such as "Mui Nain Jane" (ମୁଇ ନାଇ ଜାନେ) for Mun jane nahi (ମୁଁ ଜାଣେ ନାହିଁ). It is also because of this influence that sometimes "na" (ନ) "ma" (ମ) and "ta" (ତ) are aspirated as in the words Kanha (କାହ୍ନା) for kana (କାନ), "ambhar" (ଆମ୍ହର୍) for "amara (ଆମର), "Tumhar" (ତୁମ୍ହର୍) for tumara (ତୁମର) "murhi' (ମୁଢ଼ି) for "muri" (ମୁଡ଼ି), etc. The last Sambalpur District Gazetteer has pointed out some interesting words which are common to Ahyamiya (Assamese) and Sambalpuri Oriya, but not known to either Bengali or Oriya, e. g., Karchali (କରଛୁଲି) meaning a ladle, Juin (ଜୁଇଁ) meaning fire, Mahalia (ମାହାଲିଆ) meaning "for nothing" Phal (ଫାଲ୍) meaning "side", Olag (ଓଲଗ୍) meaning "bowing down".

There are very large numbers of words which are differently pronounced. There are, however, many original words in Sambalpuri Oriya which are not found in common Oriya language. Such words, if properly assimilated, may enrich the present Oriya language. A list of a few such words is given below.

Girls are addressed in endearing manner, as. "nuni" (ନୁନି), or "bui" (ବୁଇ). Words like "Chhekiba" (ଛେକିବା) and "Chhmiba" meaning as checking respectively the vertical motion and horizantal motion of things are found in Sambalpuri and not in Oriya. Sambalpuri has also a rich vocabulary to express accuracy of ideas and action in different words. For example, (ଦେଖିବା)—"to see" is expressed differently for different attitudes of seeing, such as ([illegible]),—to see squintingly, ([illegible]) to look angrily, ([illegible]) to look grumblingly, ([illegible]) to look disappointedly, etc.

(ii) Hindi and Laria

In the latter part of the 19th century when Sambalpur was a district in the Central Provinces, administrative difficulty was felt for retaining Oriya as the official and court language in the district. Government had to send Oriya knowing officers to administer Sambalpur which was the only Oriya speaking district in the Central Provinces. It was to remove this difficulty that the Government of Central Provinces made Hindi, the official and court language of Sambalpur with effect from the 1st January, 1896. The people of Sambalpur whose mother-tongue was Oriya opposed this change and when Sir Andrew Fraser, the Chief Commissioner, visited Sambalpur in July 1901 prominent persons of the district met him and demanded that "If it was thought impossible to have Oriya as the language of one Central Provinces' district' they would prefer to be transferred to Orissa". The Chief Commissioner recommended the same year in a despatch to the Government of India for the separation of Sambalpur. The Government then was not prepared to transfer the district to Bengal of which Orissa formed a part. They restored Oriya as the official and court language in 1903.

The number of Hindi speaking persons according to 1931 Census was 39,095 and this figure included those whose mother-tongue was Laria or Chhatisgari. Laria like Bagheli and Awadhi is a dialect of Eastern Hindi. According to the Census of 1961; 33,081 persons speak Hindi and 4,000 Laria or Chhatisgari. Hindi and Laria spaking persons mostly inhabit the subdivisions of Sambalpur, Bargarh, and Kuchinda.

(iii) Kisan

The Kisans speak a Dravidian tongue which is allied to Oraon. According to 1931 Census, there were no Kisan speaking people in Sambalpur. The Kisan dialect was probably wrongly enumerated under Oraon dialect in that Census. In 1951 Census, 39,494 people were returned as speaking Kisan. But according to 1961 Census, 22,630 persons were returned as speakers of that dialect. It appears that persons speaking some allied dialect were enumerated as Kisan speakers in the Census of 1951. Kisan speaking people are mainly found in Sambalpur and Bargarh subdivisions.

(iv) Kui

The Kui speaking people numbered 3,830 in the Census of 1911 and the figure almost remained constant upto 1931. No information is, however, available regarding the speaking of this dialect for the decade 1931—1940, but in the Census of 1961 their number has been recorded as 2,313.

(v) Oraon/Kurukh

The Census of 1931 returned 41,372 persons as speaking Oraon. In view of the fact that the total Oraon population of the district was given as 6,686 in the same census, it appears that persons speaking allied

dialects were enumerated as speaking Oraon during that Census. The Kudas, who according to the 1931 Census, numbered 11,606 speak a language which is almost pure Oraon. According to 1951 Census, the number of Oraon speaking people was 4,487 and their number rose to 6,348 in 1961 Census. Speakers of this dialect were almost confined to Sambalpur, and Bargarh (including Padampur) subdivisions. Only 44 persons were found in Deogarh and two in Kuchinda subdivisions. No Oraon was found in Rairakhol subdivision.

(*vi*) Kharia

6,049 persons speaking Kharia which is considered to be a section of Munda language were recorded in 1931 Census. According to 1951 Census, the number was 7,035 and their number according to 1961 Census was 7,943. They mainly concentrate in Sambalpur, Bargarh, and Deogarh subdivisions.

(*vii*) Munda

Munda dialect was used by 11,110 persons according to 1931 Census. But according to 1951 Census, their number was 7,797 and according to 1961 Census it was 8,740.

(*viii*) Bilingualism

According to 1961 Census out of total population of 1,508,686 of the district 86,068 are shown to be speaking a language subsidiary to their mother-tongue.

A very small percentage of women of different linguistic groups can speak or understand the subsidiary languages besides their mother-tongue.

A statement showing number of subsidiary languages spoken by persons in the district has been given in appendix II.

People belonging to Bhulia, Kostha, Bania and some other castes speak Laria dialect at home and Sambalpuri Oriya outside. But the number of such billingual speakers is not available.

(*ix*) Scripts used

Oriya is the only script used by the Oriya speaking population. Those who speak Laria at home use Oriya script even when writing Laria dialect, some Laria speaking persons inhabiting the border of Chhatisgarh, use Debnagari script. People speaking other Indian languages use their respective scripts.

39. Castes and Tribes

As in other districts of Orissa there are people belonging to various castes and tribes having some common social and cultural similarities among them. But many of the castes and tribes have developed their

own peculiarities which are almost the same among their prototypes in the neighbouring districts although they differ considerably from those inhabiting the coastal districts of Orissa.

40. General Structure of Castes

Although the society is divided into a number of castes and sub-castes there is no strained relation between the upper or the lower castes. There are at present 74 scheduled castes in the district. Their number as enumerated in the Census of 1961 is given in appendix-III.

Accounts of important castes of the district are given below.

(i) Gour (ଗଉଡ଼)

The Gours are the herds-men of the district. They are also known as Gauras, Gahras, Rawats, Goalas, and Yadavs in different parts of India. Cattle-rearing is their Chief traditional occupation. But agriculture is in practice among them as their secondary calling. Some of them earn their livelihood as farm servants or field labourers. Customarily, a Gour is called Nariha who supplies water and assists officials during their occasional visit to villages. Their connection with the cow and their duties as water bearers, give them a fair social position.

At present they are found to be divided into several sub-groups such as Magadha, Jharna, Sola Khandia, Jachak, Abab and Kandas. The Magadhas are numerically more, compared to other groups. Recently migrants of this caste are found to have been concentrating in urban areas. They are mostly dealing with milk and milk products.

(ii) Ganda (ଗଣ୍ଡା)

Gandas have close affinity with the Pan and Pantantis of the district as well as of the State. They weave coarse cloth and generally acted as village watchman till recently. They also work as professional pipers and drummers and are employed as musicians in marriage ceremonies. Economically they are very backward and also lack in the skill of cultivation. They were regarded as professional thieves due to their back ward state both from economic and social point of view.

There are four subdivisions of the Gandas known as Oriya, Laria, Kandhria and Kabhria. The Oriya Gandas are those who speak Oriya. The Laria Gandas are those who reside in villages bordering Chhatisgarh and speak Laria dialect. The Kandhria Gandas are so called because they live among the Kandhas. Kabhrias Gandas are Kabir-panthis or followers of Kabir. The Oriya and Laria Gandas intermarry and eat, drink and smoke together but not with the Kandhrias or Kabhrias. The Kabhrias do not eat meat or fish.

(iii) Teli

The traditional occupation of this caste is oil pressing. This trade has greatly been affected due to oil mills. The village oilmen have abandoned this trade and taken to agriculture. Many Telis are still oil pressers and combine their caste trade with cultivation. There is a separate class called Haldia Telis who are so named because they trade in turmeric. But at present these Telis also have given up their caste trade and are engaged in petty business and cultivation.

(iv) Kewat

The Kewats are boatmen and fishermen. Previously they worked all the ferries of the district which continue to some extent till today. A very small percentage of the caste are also cultivators. Kewat women often do business as confectioners of a kind, preparing *murhi* or pop rice, *lia* or *khai* or pop paddy and *chura* or pressed rice.

(v) Brahmin

The Brahmins, though by no means the most numerous caste, are still by virtue of their social standing, their education, and their intelligence, the leading community in the district.

There are mainly three classes of Brahmins in the district, i e., Oriya, Jharua and Raghunathia. The Oriya Brahmins are also known as Utkaliyas and the Jharuas as Aranyakas while the Raghunathias are called Bhimgirias or Nathas. The Oriyas are the migrants from the coastal areas, mostly from the district of Puri and the Jharuas are very likely of indegenous origin. The Raghunathias probably immigrated from Bhimnagar in present Dhenkanal district, because of which they are known as Bhimgirias. The name Raghunathia and Natha are very likely derived from their progenotor Raghunath. These three classes of Brahmins could be distinguished by their surnames. The Oriya Brahmins have titles like Tripathy, Nanda, Sarangi, Dash, Mohapatra, Pati, Pani, Guru, Acharya, etc. The Jharua Brahmins have the surname like Panda, Parhi, Pujari, Supakar, Nayak, Sahu, Majhi, Babu, Behera, Panigrahi, etc. While the Raghunathias bear the surname Natha, Dhara, Kara, Susari, etc. There are however some common surnames between Oriya and Jharua and between Oriya and Raghunathias. Surnames like 'Mishra' and 'Behera' are found both in Oriya and Jharua classes while some Oriya Brahmins have the surname 'Susari' which is found among the Raghunathias. In the caste hirarchy the Oriyas are the highest and next to them, the Jharuas. The Raghunathias are regarded as the lowest order of Brahmins in the district. A Raghunathia can take cooked food in the houses of Oriya and Jharua Brahmins, a Jharua can take the cooked food in the house of Oriya Brahmin but not in the house of Raghunathia Brahmin. An Oriya Brahmin shall not accept cooked food from the Jharuas or Raghunathias. Inter-marriage is forbidden

between these three classes of Brahmins although several cases of inter-marriage have taken place in recent years. The distinction between Oriyas and Jharuas is however, not very sharp. The Oriya Brahmins do not wear moustaches and those who want to have moustaches must grew beard along with it. There is no such rule for a Jharua Brahmin. An Oriya is never allowed to smoke, but a Jharua can smoke with impunity. In the sacred thread ceremony the Jharua performs nine out of ten religious rites while all of the ten rites are performed by the Oriya. The Oriyas are mostly Siva worshippers whereas the Jharuas are mostly Paramarthis or Vaishnavas. A priest employed for worship in a Jagannath temple in the district is invariably a Jharua. There is a peculiar difference in the food habits of these two classes. The Oriyas relish spicy vegetable curry which they call 'guliaguli' whereas the Jharuas prefer less spice and enjoy a special type of sour-curry, which they call 'ambila'. These two classes of Brahmins have a spirit of rivalry and competition in observing religious rites particularly the Sitalsasthi festival, one of the biggest festivals of the district.

(*vi*) Karan/Mahanti

Karans are the writer castes of Orissa and they claim their social status as the next highest to the Brahmins. The caste fulfills the same function in Orissa as the Kayastha elsewhere. The people of the caste have high social position at present and are generally engaged in Government and private services. The Karans have no exogamous divisions but they have totemistic gotras.

(*vii*) Dhoba or Dhobi

They belong to the washerman caste of Orissa. Generally they serve on Jajamani system in the rural areas of the district. Their service are indispensable on the occasions of child birth and in mortuary rites. In recent years a number of Dhobis from Bihar and Madhya Pradesh have migrated and settled in urban areas of the district where they have established laundries.

(*viii*) Kuli

The Kulis are weavers who are mainly distributed in the ditricts of Sambalpur, Balangir, and Boud-Khondmals. It is said that the weaver castes of Sambalpur are divided into seven groups, namely, (1) Bhulia, (2) Kostha, (3) Dhera, (4) Patra, (5) Rangini, (6) Ganda, and (7) Kuli. Though the traditional occupation of these seven groups is weaving they are regarded as separate castes. In comparison with others the Kulis and Gandas are inferior weavers and produce coarse cloth. Agriculture is a subsidiary occupation for a small section of Kuli population.

(*ix*) Bhandari/Barika/Napita

This is the barber caste in all the district of Orissa including Sambalpur. The main occupation of this caste is shaving and serving the higher caste people on ceremonial occasions. The Bhandari will not

render his services to the out caste unless the person is readmitted to caste. At present many people of this community have given up their traditional occupation and are engaged in Government and private service.

There are three sub-groups among the barbers, i.e., (*i*) Kanamuthia, (*ii*) Chamamuthia and (*iii*) Lamahata. The Kanamuthias carry their shaving instruments in cotton bags, the chamamuthias carry their in leather bags and the Lamahatas do massage as a subsidiary profession in addition to shaving.

(*x*) Kamar

They are the blacksmiths of the district, popularly known as Luharas. They prepare all the indegenous iron implements required for the purpose of agriculture.

(*xi*) Guria

The occupation of the Guria caste is to prepare sweets and pastries for sale in towns and village markets. The caste name Guria is derived from 'Gur' meaning unrefined sugar. They prepare special sweets on ceremonial occasions. At present many of the Gurias have given up their caste profession while people of other castes have opened sweet-meat stalls both in towns and villages. People from this caste have received higher education and are in Government or private service. Many have taken to agriculture or other trades.

(*xii*) Agaria

The Agarias have a traditional history of their own. They are the descendants of Bidura who was born of a Sudra woman by Vichitra Virja, the father of Dhrutarastra and Pandu. Bidura married the daughter of Kesheba Das, a Sudra king of Hattakeswar near Kasi and became the father of two sons, Vaibhanu and Suramanu. These two brothers were known as Bidura Kshetriyas and their successors residing in Northern India were regarded as Khestriyas.

When Adil Shah was the Sultan of Delhi the Bidura Kshetriyas residing in his empire were greatly persecuted. These Kshetriyas being proud of their heritage were not bowing down before any authority. Sultan Adil Shah forced them to pay him homage hanging a sword in front of them, so that they would get injured if they would not bow their heads while saluting him. The Bidura Kshetriyas preferred physical injuries to loss of their racial prestige The Sultan thereafter ordered them to go to Kandahar to fight with the Afghans and those who disobeyed were threatened with forcible conversion to Islam or penalty of death As a result of this persecution 44 families left the empire of Adil Shah and took shelter in Orissa.

The Agaria caste have mostly migrated to Sambalpur from outside the district. They continued to immigrate in considerable numbers till 1901. The Agarias are a class of industrious cultivators who emigrated from the kingdom of Patna and settled in the Sambalpur kingdom

during the rule of Raja Madhukar Sai, the fourth Chauhan Raja of Sambalpur. They made their first settlement in the village Laira (Laida) and later spread over different parts of Sambalpur, and the ex-States of Gangpur, Bamra, and the neighbouring regions of Madhya Pradesh. Laida is still regarded by the Agarias as their place of early settlement in the district.

(*xiii*) **Mali**

The Mali, here as elsewhere, is a gardener. He cultivates sugarcane, tobacco and other money crops. Although the name Mali means gardener, they never work as gardeners in private houses and prefer to work in their own plot of land. The Kols, Kharias and Gandas generally work as gardeners in private houses.

(*xiv*) **Koshta**

The Koshtas are famous for weaving tassar-silk of superior quality. But their caste-trade has deteriorated due to shortage of tassar cocoon. Many have given up weaving altogether. Many now weave partly in cotton. They are mainly concentrated in Sambapur town and Barpali.

(*xv*) **Bhulias**

The Bhulias, an important caste of the district, weave fine cotton cloth with colourful borders. Generally all Bhulia families are weavers many of them also have land. The caste is very well-to-do and they also do money-lending business.

(*xvi*) **Sunari**

The Sunars or Sunaries work in both gold and silver ornaments used by the women-folk of the district. They also make fancy articles of silver, such as imitations of the Royal conopy or umbrella, and figures of beasts which are of excellent finish.

(*xvii*) **Kulta**

The Kultas, also called Koltas or Kolitas, are the chief cultivating caste of Sambalpur. Mr. Hamid says of this caste in his Settlement Report—"The Kulta remains the most steady and industrious cultivator of the district and he is really the backbone of the cultivating classes. Outside his own special sphere of activity, he is rather a simple, unimaginative man, sometimes a little obstinate in his views". The Kultas strongly appreciate the advantage of irrigation and show considerable public spirit in constructing tanks for the benefit of their lands. They are very hard-working and a Kulta is seldom poor. Previously they held many villages as Gaontias, As a class, their most prominent charac-

teristics are frugality, industy, hunger for land, and readiness to resort to litigation rather than relinquish a supposed right to it. The community is gradually becoming more advanced by getting higher education.

The Kultas say that they immigrated from the ex-State of Boudh which they regard as their ancestral home. According to one of their legends, their ancestors were employed in the royal household of Rama and having accompanied him in his exile, were permitted to settle in Orissa at the request of the Raghunathia Brahmins, who wanted them as cultivators. Another legend is that Rama when wandering in the forests of Sambalpur, met three brothers and asked them to draw water for him.

The first brought water in a clean brass pot and was called Sudh (well mannered). The second made a cup of leaves and drew water from a well with a rope, he was called Dumal from dori-mai, a coil of rope. The third brought water only in a hollow gourd and was named Kulta from Kurita, ill-mannered. This story serves to show that the Kultas, Sudha and Dumals acknowledge some connection, and in the Sambalpur district they will take food together at festivals. Another similar legend is that when Rama was wandering in the forests, he felt thirsty, and seeing a kol carrying water in a gourd, asked him to give it to him. Being conscious of his low position the Kol was reluctant to do so. Thereupon Rama told the Kol to pour the water in a hole on a stone, and then drank it. It so happened that his wife Sita threw away a half-eaten fruit, which turned into a girl, and this girl Rama bestowed on the Kol as a mark of his gratitude for giving him water. Their issue was therefore called Kolitha from Kol and litha (half-eaten).

Another, a more plausible theory of their origin is that they are an offshoot of the Chasa caste the principal cultivating caste of Orissa for several of their family names are identical with those of the Chasas. The Kultas have a sub-caste called Kulta-Chasas. It has also been considered that the Kultas may have derived their name from growing Kulthi, a favourite pulse of Sambalpur.

41. General Structure of Tribes

According to 1961 Census, 44 Scheduled Tribes are inhabitting the district. Their number as enumerated in the Census of 1961 is given against each of them in appendix-IV.

Notes on general feature of some of these important tribes are given below :—

(i) Saora/Savar/Saura

The Saoras have been identified with the Suari of Pliny and the Sabarai of Ptolemy. Some authorities are inclined to place this tribe amongst the Kolarian group. Their language is still spoken by the hill Savaras of north-east Andhra Pradesh.

Russell and Hiralal in Tribes and castes of the Central Provinces and Berar have the following account of the legends relating to the origin of the tribe. "Various stories of the origin of the Savaras are given in Sanskrit literature. In the Aitareya Brahmana they are spoken of as the descendents of Vishwamitra, while in the Mahabharat they are said to have been created by Kamdhenu, Vasistha's wonder-working cow, in order to repel the aggression of Vishwamitra. Local tradition traces their origin to the celebrated Seori of the Ramayana, who is supposed to have lived somewhere near the present Seorinarayan in the Bilaspur district and to have given her name to this place × × × ×"

The Saoras of Sambalpur live principally in the open country and have adopted the usages and language of their Oriya neighbours. They are subdivided into two main branches, called Laria and Oriya, according to their respective dialect.

(ii) Gond/Gondo

They are chiefly concentrated in the Madhya Pradesh area formerly known as Gondwana. Large number of them are also found in Orissa. In Sambalpur, Gond families are long established and their numbers and the position still held by some of them indicate that they were very influential in this part of the country.

The original home of the Gond tribe is thought to have been in Southern India whence they worked their way into Madhya Pradesh Bihar, and Orissa. Some authorities, including Russell and Hislop, regard the Khonds as a branch of the same original tribe as the Gonds, and there are strong linguistic reasons in support of their theory.

As the Gonds are the most renowned of all the Dravidian tribes it may be of some interest to trace thier history. The Gonds established their rule over various parts of Madhya Pradesh during the 13th and 14th Centuries. The main ruling families were established at Kherlu in Betal, Deoghar in Chhindwara, Garh Mandal near Jubbulpore and at Chanda. The Gond rule lasted for about two Centuries after which their territories were divided amongst the feudatory chiefs belonging to Gond tribe.

A large number of Zamindaris of Sambalpur were in the hands of the Gond zamindars which were granted to them for rendering military service. When Chauhans got possession of Sambalpur they acknowledged the zamindaris and their proprietors and the Gonds who had by that time severed connection with their overlords in Madhya Pradesh, became loyal supporters of the Chauhan Rajas of Sambalpur. Many of the Gond ex-Zamindars of the district trace even today their ancestry from the Garmandal Raj Gond stock. The sway of the Gond rulers was light and the agricultural prosperity of the country increased under them, and works, like the great reservoir known as Rani Talao, near Jubbulpore, remain to this day as monuments of their rule. An excellent practice of the Gond kings was to give any one who made a tank a grant of revenue free land lying below it. This tradition was maintained during the Gond rule in Sambalpur under which certain remissions of revenue were granted for construction of tanks and other agricultural improvements.

The Gonds are of small stature and dark in colour. Their bodies are well-proportioned, with a round head, distended nostrils, a wide mouth and thick lips, straight black hair and scanty beard and moustache. Their long hair is fastened in a knot behind. They are very fond of hunting. At present they are generally engaged in agriculture and a bulk of them are farm labourers.

There are two main divisions, Raj Gonds who form the aristocracy and Dhur or dust Gonds who are the common people. The Raj Gonds may be taken to be the descendants of Gond landed proprietors, who have been formed into a separate group and admitted to Hinduism with the status of a cultivating caste, Brahmins taking water from them. Many Raj Gonds wear the sacred thread like the Brahmins.

(iii) Binjhal

The Birjhals are a primitive race who appear to have been among the earliest inhabitants of the district. Their traditions associate them with the Vindhya hills, and their former home is believed to have been Ratnapur in Chhatisgarh, whence they moved eastward in the direction of Borasambar.

The tribe traces its original ancestry to twelve brother archers, the sons of the Goddess Vindhyabasini. One day when they were in pursuit of a wild bear in the forest, they let off their arrows which flew to the door of the Lord Jagannath at Puri and stuck in it. Nobody was able to pull them from the door. At length the brothers arrived and drew them forth quite easily with their hands. The king was very much pleased with them and granted some estates in their favour. Another legend concerns the origin of the ex-Zamindari of Borasambar. According to it the mother of the first Raja of Patna, a Chauhan Rajput princess

fled from northern India to Sambalpur after her husband and relations had been killed in a battle. She took refuge in a Binjhal's hut and there gave birth to a son who became the first Chauhan Raja of Patna, and who in reward for the protection given to his mother bestowed in the Binjhal, the Borasambar estate. The more advanced Binjhals boast of an alliance with Rajputs and call themselves Barhias, a title originally borne by small hill chiefs, but the common Binjhal do not claim such Rajput descent.

The great majority are cultivators and the rest are generally farm servants or field labourers. As cultivators they are inferior to the Kultas and Agharias. Those who have settled in the plains have taken to improved methods of cultivation. Some Binjhals also work as graziers and village priests. They also acted as assistants of the village watchmen.

(iv) Mirdha

Mirdha is a small Dravidian tribe found in the districts of Sambalpur, and Bolangir. A Mirdha is generally referred to as Kuda meaning an earth digger. The Mirdhas speak 'Kun Boli', which is the dialect of the Kisans.

The main occupation of the tribe is digging earth and other works connected with it. Generally they work in groups. The headman is generally called Mirdha. In course of time the whole tribe is known as Mirdhas or 'Kunhar' as is called in their mother-tongue.

Mirdhas are divided into two groups, i.e., Bad Kuda or Kunhar and San Kuda or San Kunhar. They have many similarities with the Kisans and are believed to be a section of the Kisan tribe.

(v) Bhumia

This tribe is distributed in the districts of Koraput, Sambalpur, Boud-Khondmal, Ganjam, and Sundargarh.

The Bhumias are divided into a number of totemistic castes. The three main totems are Nag, Bagh and Surjya. These clans play an important role in determining the kinship relationship.

42. Religious Beliefs

The great majority of the people are followers of Hinduism, their number according to 1961 Census being 1,508,686. There are 6,119 Muslims, 11,910 Christians, 181 Budhists, 163 Jains, and 940 Sikhs according to 1961 Census.

(a) **Religious Sects**

Three sects of Hindus, viz., Kabirapanthis, Satnamis and Kumbhipatias need be discussed.

(i) **Kabirapanthis**

The Kabirapanthis are a small sect and their number was 15,668 according to the Census of 1901. Subsequently, they have been treated as a sect of Hinduism and their number was not separately recorded. They are followers of Kabir (1380–1420 A.D.) a reformer of the 14th Century, who preached equality of all men before God. The saint rejected the distinctions of sect, caste and rank. Hence, they opposed the supremacy of the Brahmins in Hinduism. Generally the weaving castes such as Pankas are followers of this sect as it is said the saint himself came from a weaver's family. A number of Agharia of Sambalpur are also Kabirapanthis.

Kabirapanthis do not take meat or liquor. The worship of idols is also prohibited, but practice lags behind precept, and some members of the sect are said to show a tendency to idolatry.

(ii) **Satnamis**

The Satnamis are a smaller sect. They derive their name from the fact that their founder proclaimed the perfect equality of all men and the worship of the one true god under the title of Satnam, or the true name. Their religion appears to have been introduced in this part of the country between 1820 and 1830 A.D. by a person named Ghasidas belonging to the Chamar caste, who retired to the forests of Sonakan in Bilaspur for six months and returned proclaiming himself the receipient of a divine message. He inculcated seven principles including abstinence form liquor, meat and certain vegetables, such as tomatoes and lentils whose juice resembles blood, the abolition of idol worship, the prohibition of the use of cows for ploughing and of working oxen after midday, and the worship of the true name of the God alone. Caste was abolished and all men were to be socially equal except the family of Ghasidas, in which the priesthood of the cult was to be hereditary. His successor was Balakdas, who was murdered because he exasgerated the Brahmins by assuming the sacred thread.

The sect is particularly confined to the Chamars. Most of them call themselves Satnamis, but only a few observe the precepts of the sect, abstaining from forbidden food, from the use of tobacco and from the worship of strange gods.

(iii) Kumbhipatias

Kumbhipatias are the highest class of Sanyasis belonging to Mahima Dharma or alternatively Alekh Dharma. Mahima Dharma has several classes of followers. Those who live their usual life in society and adopt Mahima Dharma are called Ashritas, among whom again thre are two classes. Those who give up society are called Bairagis. They go about in saffron cloth. Above them there are Apara Sanyasis who wear Koupin of saffoin cloth. The highest class are called Para Sanyasis who wear the bark of the Kumbhi tree (Careya arborea Roxb), which is stucked on to a belt of Murga (Sanseviera Roxburghiana) fibre. Bairagis and Para and Apara Sanyasis go about explaining Mahima Dharma. They do not sleep more than one night in a village and do not eat more than one day in any house. They do not eat a t night. Ashritas also do not eat at night. They are not vegetarians but do not ordinarily eat fish, meat or egg. Mahima Dharma accepts only one God and is called Param Brahma. They discard all idols and images and have no caste system. They will not take food or water from a Brahmin, a Dhoba (washerman) or a Bhandari (barber) because these three are the pillars of the Hindu rituals.

The most important person of Mahima Dharma in Sambalpur district was Bhima Bhoi who belonged to a Khond tribe and was born-blind. From child-hood he could sing. He was discovered by Mahima Gosain, the founder of the Mahima religion. Mahima Gosain appointed 4 Brahmins to take down the songs to which Bhima Bhoi was singing His songs and Bhajans have been printed in books called Stuti Chinta-moni and Bhajan Mala. Bhima Bhoi could be called Saint Peter of Mahima Dharma.

According to Census of 1961 there are no Kumbhipatias in Sambalpur district. In 1951 there were 35. In 1931 there were 29. This does not mean that adherence to Mahima Dharma has gradually become extinct. They have been enumerated as Hindus. According to general impression the Dharma is getting more and more adherence as years passed, principally from Scheduled Tribes and Scheduled Castes.

(b) Christian Missions

Long before Sambalpur came under British rule two American Baptist Missionaries came here in 1836 and started Missionary activities in this area along with an Oriya preacher from the Orissa Baptist Mission. One of these American Missionaries, lost his life and the other lost his two children at Sambalpur and the rest invariably fell ill. So they left Sambalpur and came to Balasore to work with British Missionaries. After their departure no Missionary visited Sambalpur

for 40 years. Some Missionaries visited Sambalpur at intervals till 1897 when a permanent station was established at Sambalpur to propagate christianity.

At present there are various Christian missions viz., Catholic Baptist, Lutheran, and Pentecostilic working in the district.

43. Manners and Customs

Manners and customs of different castes and tribes vary according to religious beliefs.

The Kultas generally employ Brahmins for their religious ceremonies and regard Vaishnavas or Bairagis as their *Gurus*. During marriage ceremonies the *Gurus* plays an important role. The Gandas worship all Hindu gods and goddesses. But Mahalakshmi, the goddess of wealth receives special respect. They also believe in evil spirits who are associated with the causes and cure of different diseases. They prefer their own caste men as priests called Birtias. The Savars also worship Hindu gods and goddesses like the Gandas as they have special respect for the goddess, Mahalakshmi. They have Vaishnab or Bairagi *Gurus* like the Kultas but they do not employ Brahmins for performing religious ceremonies. They generally observe all Hindu festivals of which Raja Parab and Gamha Purnami are of special importance to them.

The religion of the Gond is animistic. The deified ancestors are represented by small pebbles kept in a basket in the kitchen where he regularly worships them. His greatest God is Bura Deo, but his Pantheon includes many others, some being Hindu gods and other animals or implements to which Hindu names have been attached. They observe Hindu festivals like *Raja* and *Holi* . They have a number of religious observances connected with first eating of a new crop and perform religious rites for agriculture and other economic pursuits.

The Binjhals worship Hindu deities along with swords, spears, and arrows. Bindubasini is their principal goddess, an idol in the shape of a girl carved on stone. According to tradition her original place was in the Vindhya Hills who has been enshrined in a temple on the hill near Narsinghnath. The goddess is worshipped by a Binjhal priest and is offered goats, fowls and coconuts. Once in three years the worshippers take out the idol and with great pomp carry it in procession in Binjhal villages. The younger folk accompany the worshippers singing and dancing. Besides, Lakheswari, the goddess of archery, Dunger Devta, the mountain deity are also worshipped by the Binjhals. They do not employ Brahmins as their priests. Vaishnabs or Bairagis are taken as Mantra Gurus. They also believe in spirits and ghosts.

The Kulis have adopted Hinduism as their religion. They perform a special ceremony in the month of Bhadra when they send boys and girls in the evening of the eleventh day to the forest to fetch a branch of *Karma* or *Sal* tree. The branch is placed in the village and is worshipped with ceremony. The Kulis eat, drink, and dance near the branch. On the next morning the branch is taken in a procession to a tank, where it is immersed.

Bhumias observe 'Balijatra Parab' as the most important festival. This is observed once in three years. A special house made of bamboos is constructed in the village and the villagers collect sand in a new basket from the rivers and deposit the same in the bamboo hut. Seeds of different cereals collected from the villages are kept covered in the sand for nine days in which water is poured to germinate. If the germination is not fairly good, then the gods have to be propitiated. The ceremony lasts for these nine d ys with prayers fastings and other rites. The Bhumias also worship Budhimai, the village deity and Hundi Devta.

44. Burial System

Burial system of different castes and tribes vary as some cremate the dead bodies and others bury them. Customs to observe the ceremony differ considerably. Some peculiar customs are given below.

In Ganda society dead bodies are generally buried. But the well-to-do Gandas follow the practice of cremation. The dead body is placed on its back with the head to the north in both cases and those who cremate the dead bodies bring relics (pieces of unburnt bones) and a person is deputed to immerse the relics in the holy river Ganga. The person remains as an out-caste until he returns to his village and gives a feast to his fellowmen.

Gonds either bury or cremate the dead bodies. Ordinarily they cremate the dead bodies with their head to the south. On the fifth day after death they perform the ceremony of bringing back the soul. The relatives of the deceased go to the river side and call aloud the name of the dead person. Then they enter the river and catch either a fish or an insect with the belief that it is the spirit of the dead person. In some cases the fish is eaten by the family keeping in mind that it would be born as a child

Binjhals usually bury, but the rich Binjhals are generally cremated. The dead body is buried in a grave which is at least three feet deep. Before the burial the dead body is taken seven times round the grave and then is placed in the grave with the head to the north. Females are laid on the back with their face towards the sky, and males with the face downwards. If the body is burnt,

the ashes and bones are generally taken to Panch Pandab Dhar in the stream near Narsinghnath and in some cases by rich persons to the Ganga. On the night of the ninth day after burial, the castemen go to the house of the deceased. cook food for the family, and take some of the mourners outside the village. They clear the ground under a tree. In the centre they put uncooked rice, with a lamp over it and cooked rice on either side. Then they watch for an insect or fly to come up to the lamp. The insect is carefully captured alive and brought to the house of the deceased. Next day the relatives shave themselves and go to a stream where the insect is worshipped and thrown in the stream. Then they return and join in a feast in the house of the deceased. The ceremony which is known as *Kharapani* is not performed for children under two years of age.

45. Inter-Caste Relations

In the social structure of castes and tribes, two distinct substructures are present, namely, the Hindu and the Tribal. In the Hindu social structure there are many castes who interact among themselves. The inter-relationship among the tribes also exists. Generally it is indicated that the relationship has been extended from the castes to the tribes.

There is a sense of mutual understanding among different subcastes of Hinduism which is important from the religious as well as economic point of view. Each caste maintains its separate identity and generally functions as an endogamous unit. Due to rapid urbanisation and industrialisation, the Hindu social structure is gradually losing its solidarity.

46. Social Life

(i) Property and Inheritance

The Mitakshyara School of Joint family system is usually prevalent among the Hindus where all the earning members contribute to the common economic pool of the family. Mis-understanding between the members of a family and to some extent selfishness of earning members at times gives a blow to the joint family. Modern economic pursuit is also separating the members of a joint family from one another. This system is however not found among the tribal folk. After marriage the couple form their own separate family and a new house.

(ii) Transfer of Property

Among Hindus, property is passed by the Mitakshyara School as amended by the Hindu Code. Bengalis, however, are governed by the Dayabhaga School. Muslims have their own law. Among tribes,

generally the family remains undivided during the father's life-time and in some cases till the death of the mother as among the Gonds. If, however, the married sons do not pull on well with the father they live separately with their wives and children. The parents live with the unmarried sons and daughters and the joint family property remains undivided till the death of the father. It is only after his death the village elders divide the land and cattle, etc., among the sons in equal shares. The eldest son gets an extra patch of land in recognition of his status, and each unmarried son gets an extra head of cattle to meet the bride price. Some lands are kept for maintenance of the widow and the unmarried daughters. If a person dies with no male issue, his property is inherited by his brothers in equal shares. In case he has no brother, the paternal uncle inherits the property. Women have no right over the landed property and young widows return to their parents. If a widow wants to remain in her deceased husband's family she can do so. She is to bring up the children and get them married by cultivating the land belonging to her ex-husband. If a person marries the widow of his deceased elder brother the property is inherited by him.

(iii) **Marriage and Morals**

Among the tribes like Binjhals and Gonds marriage ensures full establishment of position and status in their society. Marriage is regulated by clan exogamy. Violation of the principle of exogamy is regarded as a social offence and is condemned by their traditional law. Child marriage is not usually found among the tribals. Besides the regular forms of marriage, other forms of tribal marriages like, elopement, forcible application of vermilion and intrusion, etc.. were common among them. A mock ceremony has now survived these customs.

Though monogamy is the common rule, polygamy also exists in a lesser degree. Pre-marital promiscuity which was not uncommon in the past is now looked down upon. Whatever pre-marital experience a girl may have had, she must be faithful to her husband. The practice of keeping concubines or kept women prevails to a limited extend in towns.

Foot-note. Sub.--A case of Kandha marriage.

In 1932 a Kandha boy was prosecuted and convicted for kidnapping a Kandha girl with the help of a few youngmen. After the youngmen had been convicted and sent to prison, the Deputy Commissioner received reports that it was customary among the Kandhas to stage a kidnapping. They sent a few young men to make a feeble protest. The Deputy Commissioner reported the matter to the Government who accepted his recommendation to release the young man from prison.

(iv) Traditional restrictions on marriage alliance

Among the non-tribals gotro exogamy is followed., although not as strictly as among the Brahmins. Marriage with the daughter of the maternal uncle is not generally allowed. Among the Binjhals marriage is not allowed between spouses having blood relationship. It is customary with some tribes to marry the widow of one's elder brother. The elder brother of the deceased husband is treated as the father-in-law.

(v) Marriage customs and rituals including dowry system

Besides the common customs and rituals followed throughout the State there are some peculiar customs followed by the people of the district.

It is customary in Kulta society to give a girl in marriage before puberty. If the parents are too poor to celebrate the marriage at the proper time, their fellow castemen raise a subscription for them. The Kulta marriges present several peculiar features. When the eldest boy or girl is married, the parents have to undergo a ceremony of remarriage, which is called Sup-Bibaha. A figure is made with rice of a monkey or deer, at which the bridegroom shoots an arrow. It is then cooked and eaten. This symbolises the chase and is reminiscent of their former life in the forests. The drummers of the bridegroom's party precede the bridegroom and on arrival at the bride's village, encounter the drummers of the bride's party. A fight ensues If the bridegroom's party wins, all is well, but should they be defeated, the bride's father is fined A ceremony known as *Khadiparji* is performed before marriage is fixed between a couple. *Arua* rice and blackgram is dropped on a cup of water while uttering the names of the would-be bride and bridegroom. If all these grains sink, the negotiation proceeds Otherwise it is cancelled. At the time of betrothal the bride is paid a sum of rupees fifty or one hundred as a sign of betrothal. Simple household utensils are given as dowry.

In Bhumia society two forms of marriage take place, i. e., 'arranged' marriage and 'forced' marriage. Arranged marriages are done by parents of both sides and a bride price is paid by the bridegroom. The price generally consists of a cock, a ram and one *puti* of rice. Forced marriage or 'Udulia' involves no bride price or negotiation and the marriage is fixed between the male and female partners themselves.

Ganda girls are married generally between the age of 5 and 12 years, and if a girl is unmarried when she attains puberty, she is married to a bow or an arrow tied to a post made of mahua

wood. The bride and the groom mount on the hips of two persons attending the marriage, if they are grown up, but if young, on their shoulders, and then their bearers dance.

In Binjhal society, generally marriage takes place after the girl attains puberty. The marriageable age for girls varies from 16 to 20 and for the boys from 18 to 22 years. Special facilities are given to young girls on festival days to mix with the other sex, and they are allowed to make their own selection. The marriage day is fixed by curious method of divination. The bridegroom's father calls for the *gaint* or astrologer of the village, an elderly Binjhal, on any auspicious day of the week except Saturday and Tuesday. At sunrise the astrologer places a bell-metal plate full of water in front of the groom's house and in this he puts two grains of rice and *urid*. If they sink, the sign is inauspicious, but this is avoided by selecting old light grains. Then a few grains of rice and *urid* are separately dropped into the water and these are supposed to represent the boy and girl. If the grains come together, it is auspicious, if they separate it forebodes evil. The experiment is repeated thrice, and if the grains unite as many times, it means that the married life will be happy. If inauspicious signs appear, the betrothal ceremony is often postponed.

(*vi*) Marriage of widows and Divorce

Marriage of widows is not commonly allowed by the Brahmins and other higher castes of Hindu society. But a number of other castes and tribes permit widow marriage and allow divorce.

The Binjhals allow the widows and divorced wives to marry again as if they were maidens. A widow is expected to marry the younger brother of her deceased husband if he had died without any male issue to inherit the property.

Among the Kulis, the widow is permitted to marry again. A wife is divorced if she is barren or quarrelsome.

Kultas also divorce their wives on the ground of barrenness. A second wife is brought to the house in order to have a male issue with the consent of the first wife. A Kulta cannot divorce his wife unless the grounds of divorce are discussed and permitted by the caste assembly. A bachelor, as a rule does not marry a widow, but if he does, he has first to perform a mock marriage with a flower.

A peculiar form of marriage known as 'Lamsena' or serving for a wife is also found among the poor Gonds who cannot afford to pay the bride price. He has to serve under the bride's parents and the period of service agreed upon ranges from 3 to 6 years. But there is

no obligation on the bride's parents to fulfil their contract and they may marry their daughter to another person who offers a good price for her.

(vii) **Economic dependence of women and their place in society**

A tribal woman plays an important role in economic pursuits and works with her husband, in the fields. However her position is not equal with her husband, and her liberties are limited. Women are hardworking and even surpass their male counterparts in many fields.

(viii) **Prostitution, drinking and gambling**

Although prostitution is illegal by law it still exists in the urban areas of the district. Prostitution is rare among the tribals.

Drinking is fairly common among the tribes and they freely drink on festive and ceremonial occasions. Generally they drink 'handia' prepared out of rice. The bride's father has to supply wine to the bridegroom as a marriage present. Use of liquor is common among many lower castes. There are foreign-liquor shops in the district and the so-called educated and enlightened people mostly consume costly wines.

Gambling is not rare in the district Specially during fairs and Melas people engage themselves in gambling.

47. Home Life

(i) **Types of dwelling**

Most of the houses of the district have wattle walls and thatched roofs of paddy straw. The general feature of the thatch is double sloped, the ground plan is almost rectangular. In urban areas 'Pucka' houses having stone or brick walls and cemented floors form the highest number. Similarly roofs made of corrugated iron, asbestos sheets bricks and concrete are rarely seen in rural areas but they are found in good numbers in towns. Thatched roofs of these with grass, leaves reeds, wood or bamboos cover nearly 65·8 per cent of houses in the rural areas, but in urban areas their percentage is very low being only 13·7 per cent. Tiles, slate, etc., are used for roofs both in rural and urban areas.

Two-roomed houses form the majority in the district, a slightly less number of houses have only one room. Number of bigger houses having 3 or more rooms are very few.

(ii) **Furniture and Decorations**

Walls of many houses are decorated with icon figures in different colours and alpana. Both the floors and walls are being decorated on special occasions like marriage and festivals with much care and attention. Some tribal houses, are very artistically painted in different colours. Bhumia women are experts in painting their walls.

Furniture in an ordinary house consists of a cot for each member of the family and some wodden seats. Almost every house has a few string beds. Chairs, benches and other costly furniture are rarely found in modest village dwellings. The sense of keeping various types of furniture is gradually developing among the people.

(*iii*) **Dress**

An average man is content with a piece of dhoti and napkin, women wear a handloom or mill made saree. Females generally use colourful sarees and fabrics (*see* picture). Plain white sarees are preferred on festive occasions. Usually the young women use under-wears along with the sarees. Frocks are used by small girls and in villages small sarees are also worn by them. Men generally use dhoti, khadi, lungi, gamuchha, kamij or panjabi and the well-to-do persons use vests under-wears.

(*iv*) **Ornaments**

Gold and silver ornaments are generally used. Ornaments made of brass are also found among the poorer people who cannot afford costly ornaments. Necklaces, bangles, ear and finger rings and nose gays are popularly used by the women, where as *bala* and *mali* are common among male members of the tribal societies. Massive bangles armlets and anklets called *katuria, banduria* are worn on ceremonial occasions. (*see* picture).

48. Communal Life

Dance

Most of the communal dances of the district are connected with a function or worship of a deity. Seasonal fairs and festivals provide scope for a dance. Colourful folk-dances are enjoyed by the people who have developed this art since centuries. Some indegenous and popular dance of the district are discussed below :—

(*i*) **Karama Dance**

K rama is the most colourful dance of the Binjhal, Kharia, Oraon, Kisan and Kol tribes of Sambalpur. It is a ritual dance, performed in honour of 'Karamsane' or 'Karamrani' the deity who grants children and is responsible for good or bad fortune.

On the 11th day of the full-moon of Bhadrav, young boys and girls go to the jungle singing and beating drums. A branch of 'Karam' or Sal tree is brought to the village. The village priest worship the branch by pouring liquor over it and making offerings of rice and sweets A fowl is also sacrificed and the blood is offered to the branch.

In the beginning of the performance, the dancers enter dancing-arena in two rows. The drummers, cymbal players and singers accompany them with rhythmic steps. This dance of Binjhal dancers is one

of light hearted freshness combined with a youthful energy, which makes it very charming and enjoyable. In course of dancing, the dancers only shout 'hai', 'hai' according to rhythm of the drums. Each member of the party wears a red turban. Peacock feathers are used as head dresses and everybody hold mirrors either in right or left hands while dancing. Young maidens watch the dance with interest while they appreciate the performances of individual dancers in order to select their life partners from amongst them. The girls start dancing after the dance of the males have stopped and they dance in various postures. They bend their bodies forward and backward, right and left, bend their knees, crossing the hands of each other and clap hands. While dancing the girls sing in different tunes, a long song praying for rain. After the dance of the girls is over both boys and girls dance in separate lines till the next morning. Early in morning the branch is taken in procession and thrown either in a tank or a stream.

(*ii*) Sua Dance

After the Karama dance is over, Binjhals have a festival called Sua dance. Young girls move from village to village singing and dancing accompanied by drummers and Ganda musicians. They are entertained in every village they visit. But this dance is no longer popular.

(*iii*) Desi Karama Dance

It is an adjunctive form of Karama dance, performed on festive occasions by Ganda, Pana, etc. One person sings melodious songs and dances in different poses and moves the body forward, right and left.

(*iv*) Dalkhai Dance

Young girls of Binjhal, Saura, Kuda and Mirdha tribes perform this dance during 'Dashara' 'Bhai Jiuntia', 'Phagun Punai' and other festive days. In the beginning of the dance, the young girls stand in a line or in a semicircular pattern and sing songs which are popularly known as Dalkhai songs.

Various types of drums like *Dhol, nisan* and *tamki* and wind instruments are played during the course of the dance. The *dhol* player dances with the party, whereas other musicians sit in their respective places and play their instruments.

(*v*) Ghoomra Dance

The name of this dance is derived from a type of drum called *ghoomra*, which is made of clay.

In the beginning of the performance, the drums are played by the dancers walking in a rhythmic pattern making a circle. After some-time the singer sings songs in praise of Saraswati, and other deities.

Thereafter the dancers form a number of circles and sing in 'Chhanda', and 'Chaupadi' metre songs depicting stories from Ramayana and Mahabharata. Generally males take part in this dance. It is a dance of the Binjhal, Khond and Saura tribes of the district performed during auspicious occasions like Dashara, Pauspunai, Nuakhia and during marriage ceremonies.

(*vi*) Kolsabadi Dance

This dance is prevalent among the Gond and Bhuyan tribes and the Ganda caste. Only male dancers take part, holding a two feet long stick each. They dance in various poses and postures striking the sticks according to the rhythm of the songs they sing. Local musical instruments are also played. The songs mainly base on the immortal love story of Radha and Krishna, in local dialect.

(*vii*) Danda Nata

Danda Nata is a kind of ritual dance specially performed during the Chaitra Parva. After some rituals, the dance begins in the evening. A man dressed in coloured garments dances in the beginning. A piece of cloth is placed in his shoulders which he holds with both his hands and dances in different poses according to the rhythm of the dance, Dhol and Mahuri being the associated instruments.

After the Parva-dance is over, another dancer known as Vinakaria enters the arena, holding a local made Lute (Veena) after which he has been named so. He does not play the Veena, but the tiny bells attached to it produce a tinkling sound while he moves his hands. He invokes different deities through songs and dances to the tune with varieties of steps and movements for a fixed period.

Vinakaria is followed by Thetal, a male dressed as female who enters the arena. The name Thetal means intermediary. He dances for a certain period and then invites his mates. Then two to three boys dressed as girls come in wearing local ornaments made of cheap metals. After some humorous conversation all of them sing songs and dance to the tune.

At the end, the dancers enact a dance-drama based on the epic stories of either the Ramayana, the Mahabharata or other Puranas.

This dance is also performed during other seasons of the year on auspicious occasjons in which the dancers completely eliminate the parva-dance item. The Dandanata is also performed in the districts of Dhenkanal, Balangir, Cuttack, and Puri with slight variation.

(*viii*) Humo and Bauli

These are two playful dances performed by young and unmarried girls on auspicious occasions. They sing and dance in groups. No musical instrument is played during the performance and the steppings and movements of the dance are very slow,

49. Festivities

Most of the festivals observed in Sambalpur are common to all other districts of the State. Some of the important festivals are as follows:—

(i) Sital Sasthi

Sital Sasthi is the celebration of the marriage ceremony of Lord Siva with goddess Parvati. The festival is observed in June with pomp and ceremony at Sambalpur, Barpali, and Talsirgida and extend for over a week.

The congregation at Sambalpur is about 50 thousand. Pilgrims from the neighbouring States of Madhy Pradesh and Bihar also participate in the festival. About 20 thousand people attend the mela at Barpali and nearly 10 thousand congregate at Talsirgida.

The festival starts with *ganthal-Phita* (untying of the wedding knot) of the divine couple continuing from the previous year. A devotee generally acts as the father of goddess Parvati. He takes the image of the bride to his house. Another person appointed as the father of Lord Siva goes in a procession to the newly selected parent of the bride to make the formal proposal of marriage by giving a bundle of *sal leaves*. This is called *Patra Pande*. After the negotiation is over representative deities from Siva temple move to extend invitation to different deities of the locality and also to general public. The bride-groom's procession, popularly known as 'barat' starts in the 5th night of the bright fortnight and the marriage ceremony is performed in a traditional manner. In the following night the return procession moves with great pomp and grandeur throughout the town and then reaches the temple the next day.

In Barpali, and Talsirgida the festival is held in the local Siva temples. In Sambalpur, however, the festival is celebrated at three temples i. e. Somanath (Balibandha), Balunkeswar (Nandapara), and Loknath (Jharuapara).

(ii) Nuakhia

This is the most important social festival of the district. Generally it takes place in the bright fortnight of Bhadraba (August–September) on an auspicious day fixed for the purpose by astrologers. In the ex-State areas the date is fixed according to the instructions of the ruling chiefs.

In villages, preliminary preparation starts a fortnight preceding the festival. The house wife keeps herself busy in clearing all the household articles so that the entire house looks tidy. Although the festival is ment for eating the new rice of the year, it is observed as a day of general festivity. The villagers greet their frinds and relatives and

generally all the members of a household are expected to unite and spend a day happily together. It is a tradition that the eldest-member of a family distributes new rice cooked with milk and sugar to other junior members after offering to goddess Laxmi. It is a day of great rejoice for all and from early morning to night-fall they enjoy to themselves in various sports and cultural programmes. Some of the scheduled tribes observe this day as *Karam Parva.*

(iii) Mahulgundi

This festival also called *Gundikhia* is observed on the *Phalgun Purnima* (February-March). New gram, mango, Mahua etc. are offered to the family deity and the village deity and then eaten by the people for the first time in the year, just as new rice is eaten on the *Nuakhia* day.

(iv) Nrusimha Chaturdasi

The festival takes place at Narsinghnath (The famous temple of Lord Nrusinhanath is situated near Paikmal) in Padmpur subdivision and also at Gogua, a big village of Deogarh subdivision on Baisakha Sukla Chaturdasi (May-June) every year. Nearly 25,000 pilgrims congregate at Narsinghnath and the fair sits for 3 days. Many people from Madhya Pradesh also participate in the festival. Nearly 5,000 persons attend the mela at Gogua.

(v) Rathajatra

Rathajatra, the car festival of Lord Jagannath takes place during the month of Asarah (June-July) on the 2nd day of moon and is observed throughout the district as an important religious function. The celebrations at Sambalpur town, Deogarh, Rairakhol, and Bhatli are largely attended among all other places of the district where there are shrines of the deity.

A number of decorated wooden cars are pulled at Sambalpur from the respective temples through the main road to one end of the town and in most cases the return journey (Bahuda Jatra) takes place on the same day. The deities are then kept in a separate temple called '*Gundicha ghar*' for 5 days. On the 6th day the *Bahuda Jatra* takes place and again the deities are taken on the same route and return back to the main temple.

At Deogarh the festival at Purunagarh village situated within the Municipal area of Deogarh attracts a large number of devotees. It takes three days for the car to reach the 'Gundicha ghar' (Mausi Mandir) from the temple, though the distance is hardly more than a kilometre The return journey also takes 3 days. About 7 thousand devotees gather at Purunagarh during the festival. The rites and formalities of the festival are observed under the auspices of the ex-ruler of Bamra.

Instead of Lord Jagannath, Dadhibamana is the presiding deity of the car festival at Bhatli. The duration of the festival is 9 days. The deity is pulled in the car, covers nearly one mile from the temple and then returns to the *mausimandir* (*Gundicha ghar*). There the deity stays for a week and then the *Bahuda Jatra* takes place. The deity then returns to the main temple. Nearly 10 thousand persons attend the festival.

(*i*) **Sivaratri**

Sivaratri is celebrated in all the temples of Lord Siva in the month of February (on the 14th day of the dark fortnight of Phalguna) The Bimaleswar temple at Huma is most famous in the district as it attracts the largest number of pilgrims. A large number of people also attend the fair which sits on the foot of the Budharaja hill at Sambalpur and visit the temple situated on the hill. At Huma a big fair sits for a number of days and a good transaction takes place. Commodities from different parts of the district and from distant places are brought to the fair for sale.

Pilgrims who collect at Harisankar on Sivaratri climb over the Gandhamardan hill and collect at Narsinghanath for visiting Harisankar after climbing over the hill. There is thus a large congregation at Sivaratri time.

APPENDIX I

Sl. No.	Name of mother tongue		Number of persons speaking the language in 1961
1.	Bengali	..	5,871
2.	Bhumij	..	29
3.	Dutch	..	1
4.	English	..	135
5.	Gujarati	..	2,420
6.	Hindi	..	33,081
7.	Ho	..	314
8.	Kachchhi	..	48
9.	Kannada	..	60
10.	Kharia	..	7,943
11.	Khond/Kondh	..	733
12.	Kisan	..	22,630
13.	Koda/Kora	..	1,678
14.	Kol	..	3,042
15.	Kui	..	21,313
16.	Kurukh/Oraon	..	6,348
17.	Laria	..	4,000
18.	Malayalam	..	286
19.	Marathi	..	97
20.	Marwari	..	495
21.	Mirdha-Kharia	..	5,715
22.	Munda-Unspecified	..	8,740
23.	Nepali	..	114
24.	Oriya	..	1,370,133
25.	Persian	..	9
26	Punjabi	..	1,886
27.	Tamil	..	1,270
28.	Telugu	..	4,653
29.	Turi	..	80
30.	Urdu	..	6,820

APPENDIX II

Bilingualism and Mother-tongue

Name of Mother tongue	Total Speakers	Total number of persons returned as speaking a language subsidiary to the mother tongue	Subsidiary Language
1	2	3	4
Bengali ..	5,871	2,430	Oriya (M-495, F-450) English (M-824, F-13[illegible]) Hindi (M-344, F-174) Gujarati (M-4)
Bhumij ..	29	18	Oriya (M-10. F-8)
Hindi ..	33,081	8,381	Oriya (M-3,346, F-2,146) English (M-2,019, F-275) Bengali (M-50, F-24) Punjabi (M-5, F-11) Gujarati (M-5)
Ho ..	314	13	Oriya (M-6, F-6) Hindi (F-1)
Kharia ..	7,943	3,616	Oriya (M-1,097, F-2,012) Hindi (M-70, F-37) English (M-7)
Khond, Kondh	733	447	Oriya (M-363, F-82) English (M-1) Hindi (M-1)
Kisan ..	21,372	10,462	Oriya (M-8,060, F-945) Hindi (M-1,389, F-52) English (M-13, F-3)
Kol ..	3,042	948	Oriya (M-439, F-487) English (M-13) Hindi (M-5, F-4)

Name of Mother tangue	Total Speakers	Total number of persons returned as speaking a language subsidiary to the mother tongue	Subsidiary Language
1	2	3	4
Kui ..	21,313	9,824	Oriya (M-4,418, F-5,290) Hindi (M-99, F-11) English (M-6)
Kurukh, Oraon	6,348	2,458	Oriya (M-936, F-149) Hindi (M-14, F-9) English (M-2)
Laria ..	4,000	952	Oriya (M-482, F-348) Hindi (M-80, F-14) English (M-48)
Munda unspecified	8,740	3,495	Oriya (M-2,010, F-1,268) Hindi (M-184) English (M-33)
Oriya ..	13,70,133	33,030	Hindi (M-14,379, F-2,418) English (M-14,385, F-1,201) Bengali (M-284, F-80) Telugu (M-198, F-50) Gujarati (M-18, F-9) Sanskrit (M-7) Assamese (F-1)
Telugu ..	4,653	1,294	Hindi (M-395, F-175) English (M-308, F-56) Oriya (M-126, F-231) Bengali (F-3)
Urdu ..	6,820	2,317	Oriya (M-771, F-386) Hindi (M-655, F-216) English (M-243, F-44) Bengali (M-6, F-3) Gujarati (M-4, F-3) Persian (M-1, F-5)

APPENDIX III

Name of Scheduled Castes	Total population	Name of Scheduled Castes	Total population
1. Adi Andhra ..	2,44,985	2. Badaik ..	9
3. Bagheti or Baghuti	86	4. Bari .	3
5. Bariki ..	4	6. Basor or Baurud	2,740
7. Bauri ..	2	8. Bauti ..	26
9. Bavuri ..	5	10. Bedia or Bejia ..	4
11. Boldar ..	32	12. Bhata ..	1
13. Bhoi ..	305	14. Chakali ..	244
15. Chamar, Mochi, Muchi or Satnami.	13,515	16. Chandala ..	9
19. Dandasi ..	8	20. Dewar ..	285
21. Dhandwar ..	1	22. Dhoba or Dhobi	15,689
23. Dom, Dombo or Duria Dom.	2,163	24. Ganda ..	130,436
25. Ghantarghada or Ghantra.	1,038	26. Ghasi or Ghasia	15,254
27. Ghogia ..	86	28. Ghusuria ..	3
29. Godra ..	357	30. Gokha ..	12
31. Gorati or Korai	8	32. Haddi, Hadi or Hari.	1,274
33. Kandara or Kandra.	308	34. Karna ..	19
35. Katia ..	5	36. Kola ..	450
37. Khadala ..	102	38. Kodalo or Khodalo	82
39. Kori ..	20	40. Kurunga ..	268
41. Kuli ..	3,911	42. Laban ..	598

Name of Scheduled Castes		Total population	Name of Scheduled Castes		Total population
43. Lahori	..	139	44. Madiga	..	105
45. Mahuria	..	6	46. Mala, Jhala, Malo or Zala.		90
47. Mang	..	29	48. Nangan	..	226
49. Mohra or Mahar		4,322	50. Mohtar or Bhangi		2
51. Musahar	..	7	52. Nagarchi	..	2
53. Paidi	..	1	54. Paiuda	..	13
55. Pamidi	..	5	56. Pan or Pano	..	28,582
57. Panika	..	1,884	58. Pantanti	..	5,997
59. Pap	..	5,324	60. Pasi	..	1
61. Patial, Patikar, Patratanti or Patua.		46	62. Rajna	..	2
63. Samasi	..	66	64. Sanot	..	2
65. Sapari	..	1	66. Sauntia (Santia)		7
67. Sidbria	..	73	68. Siyal	..	1,962
69. Tamandia	..	3	70. Tamudia	..	6
71. Tanala	..	1,768	72. Tiar or Tior	..	1,623
73. Turi	..	1,919	74. Ujia	..	13
Unclassified	..	717			

APPENDIX IV

	Name of the Tribe	Total population
	1	2
1.	Bagata ..	15
2.	Baiga ..	5
3.	Banjara or Banjari ..	370
4.	Bhottada or Dhotada ..	22
5.	Bhuiya or Bhugan ..	20,595
6.	Bhumia ..	560
7.	Bhumij ..	78
8.	Binjhal ..	46,134
9.	Bhurjia ..	14
10.	Birhor ..	140
11.	Dal ..	14
12.	Desua Bhumij ..	3
13.	Dharua ..	83
14.	Gadaba .	24
15.	Gandia ..	25
16.	Gond, Gondo ..	93,875
17.	Ho ..	74
18.	Kawar ..	992
19.	Kharia or Kharian ..	19,180
20.	Kharwar ..	2
21.	Khond, Khond or Kandha, including Nanguli Kandha and Sitha Kandha.	23,636
22.	Kisan ..	66,528
23.	Kolha ..	2,223
24.	Kora ..	2,200
25.	Korua ..	27
26.	Kotia ..	44
27.	Koya ..	383
28.	Kuli ..	629
29.	Lodha ..	417
30.	Madia ..	8
31.	Mahali ..	221
32.	Mankidi ..	137

Name of the Tribe		Total population
1		2
33. Matya	..	97
34. Mirdhas	..	16,491
35. Munda, Munda-Lohara or Munda-Mahalis	..	35,655
36. Mundari	..	111
37. Oraoh	..	12,129
38. Paroja	..	74
39. Pentia	..	24
40. Rajuar	..	22
41. Santal	..	24
42. Saora, Savar, Saura or Sahara	..	82,575
43. Sounti	..	29
44. Unclassified	..	675

CHAPTER IV

AGRICULTURE AND IRRIGATION

50. Tracts of fertility

The Mahanadi is a prominent natural feature of the district. It flows through it from the north-west to south-east and forms generally the boundary between Bargarh and Sambalpur subdivisions. The Sambalpur subdivision does not have any large plains which the Bargarh subdivision has. The chief areas of cultivation lie along the banks of the Mahanadi, the valley of the Ib river, in the valleys and glens of Garh Loising and Jujomura and in the flat but well-wooded country to the east of the Sambalpur-Jharsuguda road. To the west of the Mahanadi lies the whole of the Bargarh subdivision, the greater portion of which is an open plain, of great natural fertility, under close cultivation. It is drained by Danta and Jira rivers—two tributaries of the Mahanadi and also by a number of other small tributaries which are, however, of little use for irrigation. The low lands are generally cultivated with rice, and are skilfully embanked, manured and irrigated. The uplands are much less carefully cultivated, are not embanked, and grow miscellaneous crops, such as pulses, sessamum, coarse rice and cotton. When the ground is newly broken, good crops are secured for several years with very little labour and no manure ; but the soil is speedily exhausted and chance cropping is the rule in all the more closely settled tracts. In soil and lie of surface the western portion of the district, comprising Bargarh subdivision, is inferior to the country lying round Sambalpur and to the north of the Barapahar hills. In the open areas of Deogarh and Kuchinda subdivisions large and prosperous villages with good tanks for irrigation are met with The Rairakhol subdivision, is mostly forest inter spersed with fertile valleys and patches of agricultural land.

51. Land Utilization

The district has a total geographical area of 43,30,000 acres (17,52,000 hectares). About 44 per cent of this area is utilized for agricultural purposes. The statement * below gives a picture of land utilization in the district (1961-62).

	Acre	(Hectare)
(1) Total cropped area ..	19,36,000	(7,83,000)
(2) Area sown more than once ..	1,82,000	(74,000)
(3) Net area sown ..	17,54,000	(7,10,000)
(4) Area not available for cultivation.	9,05,000	(3,66,000)
(5) Other uncultivated land (excluding fallow).	5,22,000	(2,11,000)
(6) Total fallow land .	4,07,000	(1,65,000)
(7) Forest ..	7,33,000	(2,97,000)

* Statistical Abstract of Orissa, 1963 pp. 582-594

52. Irrigation

In the past, irrigation in the district was done mostly by tanks. This was due to suitability of the district for tank-making. The Imperial Gazetteer (1908) mentions it in these words: "In 1903-04 the irrigated area was only 31 square miles, but in the previous year it had been over 196, being the maximum recorded. With the exception of 12 square miles under sugarcane and garden produce, the only crop irrigated is rice. It is not too much to say that the very existence of villages over a large portion of the area is dependent on the tanks which have been constructed near them. There are 9,500 irrigation tanks, or between three and four to every village in the district on an average. The ordinary Sambalpur tank is constructed by throwing a strong embankment across a drainage line, so as to hold up an irregulary shaped sheet of water. Below the embankment a four-sided tank is excavated, which constitutes the drinking supply of the village. Irrigation is generally effected by leading channels from the ends of the embankment, but in years of short rainfall the centre of the tank is sometimes cut through. Embankments of small size are frequently thrown across drainage channels by tenants for the benefit of their individual holdings. The Jambor and Sarsuitia Nullahs near Machida are perennial streams, and the water is diverted from them by temporary dams and carried into the fields. In certain tracts near the Mahanadi where water is very close to the surface, temporary wells are also sometimes constructed for the irrigation of rice. Irrigation from permanent wells is insignificant".

By 1931, the position further improved. An area of about 221,347 acres (89,646 hectares) was brought under irrigation from tanks and wells. The number of tanks swelled to 12,282. The increase in the irrigated area was most remarkable in Bargarh ex-Zamindari areas where 47,784 acres (19,353 hectares) of rice land could get irrigation compared with 28,205 acres (11,423 hectares) twenty years back.

The following is an interesting account from the Sambalpur District Gazetteer (1932) which highlights the difference in the methods of irrigation adopted by the Agharia and Kulta cultivators.

"There is a great difference between the methods of irrigation practised by the Agharia immigrants from Chhatisgarh, who have settled in the flatter riparian tracts to the north, and by the Oriya Kultas, who prefer a comparatively undulating country. The Agharia works only on rich soil, and this he finds in the level tracts which the Kulta avoids. The latter depends almost entirely on his water-supply, and likes rolling country with surface drainage and shallow sub-soil water. The Agharia is a poor tank-builder and constructs only the shallow square tank commonly used in Raipur and Bilaspur which gathers no surface drainage, depends altogether on direct rainfall, and fails in a year of short rainfall. One glance at a stretch of rice-fields suffices to distinguish

Kulta from Agharia cultivation. The former builds only low and narrow banks between his fields, seldom more than two feet high, because he has frequently to cut them in order to pass his irrigation water from plot to plot. The Agharia builds high field boundaries, making a tank of each field, because each must catch and keep its rainfall. The two systems suit the tracts to which they are applied. In any ordinarily favourable year the Agharia reaps the heavier crop, but in a bad year he loses more than the Kulta does."

Water is a far more important factor than soil, and an ample and well-distributed rainfall is a matter of vital importance to cultivators. In most years the amount of rainfall is sufficient, the average being about 58" per annum, but it is often unevenly distributed, and deficiency in the critical months is fatal to crops. So artificial irrigation is absolutely necessary. Before the completion of the Hirakud Dam Project, the main source of irrigation was the tank. The tanks were of three kinds—Kata, Munda and Bandh. From these sources, about 148,000 acres (59,940 hectares) of land are irrigated.

(*i*) Kata

An ordinary irrigation tank, which is known as a Kata, is constructed by throwing a strong earthen embankment, slightly curved at either end, across a drainage line, so as to hold up an irregularly-shaped sheet of water. The undulations of the country usually determine its shape as that of a long isosceles triangle of which the dam is the base. It commands a valley, the bottom of which is the Bahal land and the sides of which are the *Mal* terrace. As a rule, there is a cutting high up the slope near one end of the embankment. From this the water is led either by a small channel or Tal, or from field to field along the terraces, down which it finds its way to the lower land. In ordinary years, irrigation may be entirely unnecessary and in that case the superfluous water is passed along until it falls into the *nu'lah* in which the small valley ends. In years of short rainfall the centre of the tank is sometimes cut through, when the bottom lands need irrigation, but in ordinary years such an expedient would be dangerous, for the water is deepest at the centre and no sluices are used. Such tanks supply water to at least 5 acres (2·025 hectares) and uaually to an area of 30 to 300 acres (12 to 121 hectares).

(*ii*) Munda

The Munda is an embankment of smaller size across a drainage channel. Embankment of this sort are very common, as they can easily be constructed by the Raiyats themselves for the benefit of their own holdings. These men have perhaps a few fields commanded by the main village tank, but have built Mundas to protect their outlying fields, more recently acquired from others or reclaimed from the waste. For its purpose the Munda is useful, for if a failure of rain is not very serious,

it may provide water enough in the later months of growth to save the crop. But it is necessarily shallow and cannot give more than a certain supply.

(*iii*) **Bandh**

The Bandh is a four-sided tank excavated below the Kata, from which it derives its water by percolation. They are almost invariably used for drinking purposes only, are properly regarded as suitable monuments of piety or charity, and are invariably consecrate or married to a god. Apart from their obvious sanitary advantages, they add to the irrigated area by spreading percolation and by rendering it possible in years of drought to empty the irrigation tank completely.

(*iv*) **Wells**

Apart from tanks, the district has special irrigational advantages in the wells. Its sandy soil holds in most places a plentiful store of subsoil water at no great depth (15 to 29 feet) from the surface. Such wells hold water through the hot weather and are largely used for the irrigation of sugarcane plots. Temporary wells are also sometimes used for the irrigation of rice in the tracts near the Mahanadi where water is found close to the surface. Over 10,000 acres (4,050 hectares) of land get irrigation from wells.

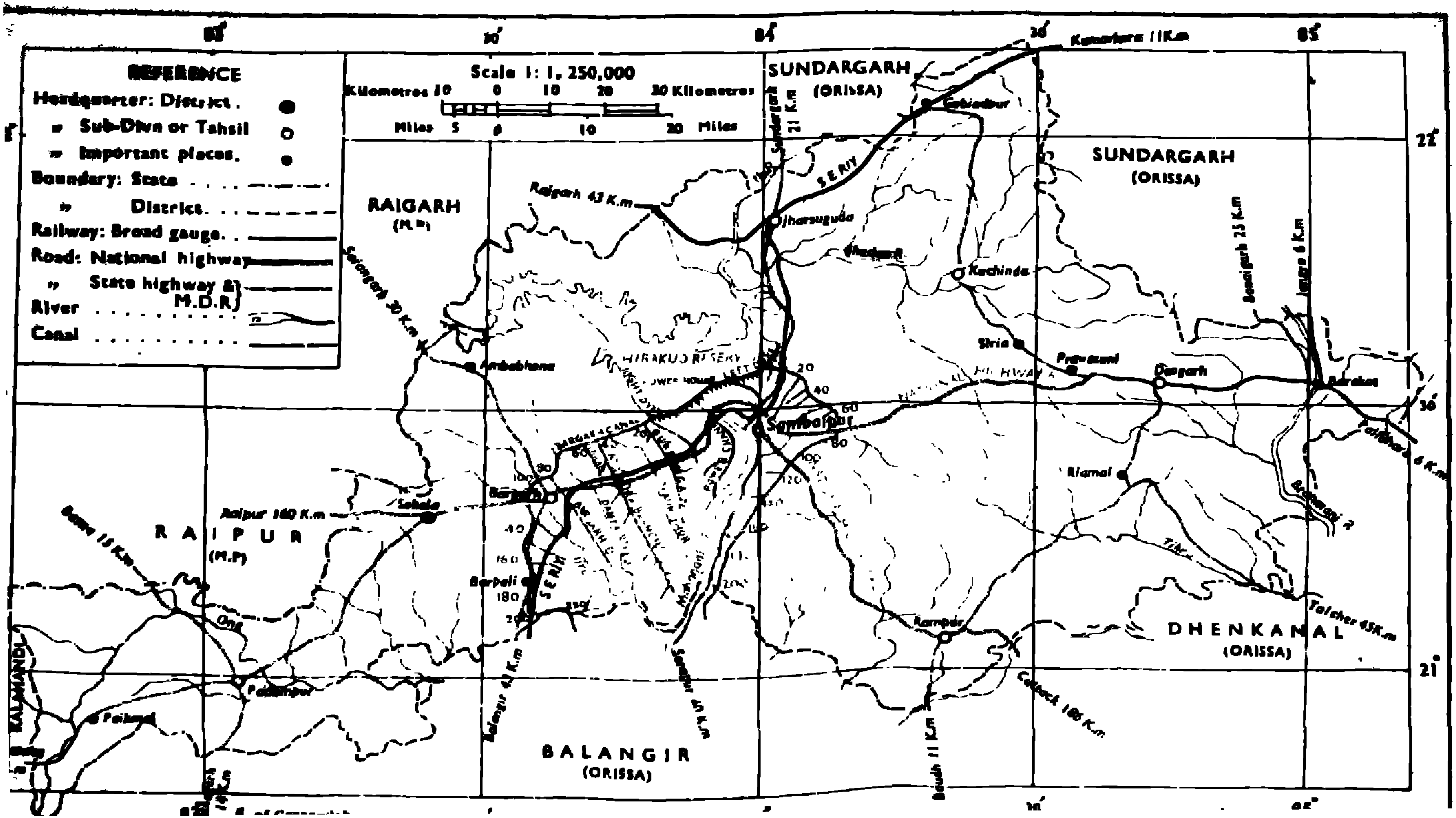
(*v*) **Other means of irrigation**

Other means of irrigation are of little importance. At places, irrigation by *nullahs* is taken recourse to, by means of which the water is diverted and carried into the fields. For raising water from a lower to a higher level the common lever lift called *tenda* is used. This consists of a long pole poised between two uprights and weighted at its lower end, and is used invariably whether water is required from a well or from a tank. If there is only a small difference of level, baskets (Sena) worked by two men are often used.

(*vi*) **Canal irrigation**

The construction of the Hirakud Dam makes a great landmark in the system of irrigation in the district. The irrigated area has substantially increased. The canals of this Dam, which irrigate this district as well as the district of Balangir, consists of three main canals, namely, the Bargarh Canal, the Sason Canal and the Sambalpur Canal having a total length of about 90 miles (145 Kms.) with 490 miles (789 Kms.) of distributaries and minors. The water reaches the field through a net work of water courses of about 1,800 miles (2,898 Kms.) in length. Water from the Hirakud reservoir flowed into the Bargarh Canal and Sason Canal in July 1956 and water was available for irrigation in September, 1956. These canals irrigate about 351,000 acres (142,155 hectares) of land in the district for raising Khariff and Rabi crops. These provide irrigation in July, that is, at a time when rainfall is usually irregular and water is much needed in the fields. Hitherto,

IRRIGATION MAP OF SAMBALPUR DISTRICT



the people could not practise double-cropping. After the Hirakud Dam made irrigation available to an extensive area of land, two crops are possible. Also, a large area of uncultivable land has become cultivable. More details about the project have been given under "Hirakud" in Chapter XIX.

(*vii*) **Minor Irrigation Projects**

So far, 64 minor irrigation projects, having an irrigated area of 9,757 acres (3,952 hectares) have been constructed. In addition to this, 26 such projects are under execution and the designed ayacut (irrigated area) of these projects are over 10,000 acres (4.050 hectares). A full list of all these minor irrigation projects is given at the end of this Chapter (Statement I).

(*viii*) **Irrigated area**

According to statistical reports [1], the total irrigated area from various sources is 528,662 acres which is split up as follows:—

Government canals	..	351,329 acres (142,288 hectares)
Private canals	..	4,750 acres (1,924 hectares)
Tanks	..	148,097 acres (59,978 hectares)
Wells	...	10,668 acres (4,321 hectares)
Other sources	...	13,818 acres (5,596 hectares)

53. Soil Conservation

Soil erosion is an important factor that affects agriculture. From the survey data collected in the Hirakud Dam catchment area, it appears that 75 per cent of the idle land would need special conservation measures like planting of trees and grass, contour ploughing, pitting, contour trenching and protection against uncontrolled grazing. The problems of stream bank erosion is also very acute. Each year good crop land and villages situated on the bank of the streams are eroded. So their protection is very important. Control of stream-bank erosion could be achieved to a great extent by planting of suitable species in the eroded banks.

Two soil conservation schemes have been implemented namely, (*i*) Demonstration in Hirakud Catchment and (*ii*) Soil Conservation in Community Development Blocks. The former which is Government of India's Scheme was started in 1961. The area of the Hirakud catchment lying in this district is about 2,500 square miles (6,475 Sq. Kms.). So far, 14,705 acres (5,955 hectares) have been treated with different erosion control measures. Soil Conservation Subdivisions

1. District Statistical Hand-Book, 1962

have been created at Jharsuguda and Kuchinda for planning and execution of erosion control work in the water-shed. The details of work have been shown in the following table:—

Soil Conservation Measures		Area (in acres)
Contour bunding	..	11,845 (4,797 hectares)
Tree planting	..	2,207 (894 hectares)
Pasture development	..	369 (149 hectares)
Control of erosion	..	236 (96 hectares)
Stream-bank protection	..	49 miles (79 Kms.)
Silt retention structures	..	4 Units
Sisal plantation	..	275 acres (111 hectares)

54. Soil

The black soil which forms so marked a feature in the adjoining districts of Madhya Pradesh is rare in Sambalpur. It occurs in the north-west of the district beyond the range of Vindhyan sandstone which shuts off the Ambabhona valley, and across the Mahanadi towards he Bilaspur border. The soil which covers the greater part of the country is apparently derived from underlying metamorphic rocks, and the differences found in it are mainly due to the elimination and transportation effected by surface erosion. The finer particles are carried into the low-lying areas along drainage lines, rendering the soil a clayey texture and leaving the uplands light and sandy.

Kharipani

Is the most valuable land in Sambalpur district. As it receives the drainage of the village both by surface flow and by seepage, crops never fail. The water which flows through the village carries with it all th manure which is deposited in the village by men and cattle. In 1952, the Chief Editor who was then Food Commissioner made an investigation of village Sarasara in Bargarh subdivision and published a pamphlet with photographs showing that a 2-acre plot of Kharipani produced 50 Maunds (1,899 Kgs.) of paddy per acre with ordinary seeds and no chemical fertiliser. In 1951 improved seeds developed in Seed Farms in Orissa and fertilisers were used and the produce per acre was 126 Maunds (4,787 Kgs.).

Kharipani occurs in every village in Sambalpur district. On account of the undulating nature of the country, people built their houses on the highest land. In most villages, cultivated land slopes away from the house-site, and the cultivators direct the drainage to their paddy fields.

The word Kharipani does not occur in coastal districts of Orissa where the land is not undulating. The corresponding description of the land which received the drainage of houses is known as Bari and is ordinarily used as kitchen garden whereas Kharipani in Sambalpur district is almost always paddy growing.

Soil classification

The most usual classification of the soil of the district is based on their position or level. This is an important consideration to the cultivator, since the country is undulating, except along the banks of the larger rivers, and consists of ridges and slopes and of the depressions between them. The Mahanadi broadly divides into two regions. There are mountains on the north-east and south-west borders. The land slopes from north-east to south-west in the northern region and from south-west to north-east in the southern region finally meeting the Mahanadi. The following types of soil are predominant in the district :

(*i*) Red forest soil, (*ii*) Brown forest soil, (*iii*) Sandy soils (*iv*) Clay loam and clay soil, (*v*) Black cotton soil.

(*i*) Red Forest Soil

This soil is found extensively in Rairakhol, Deogarh, Jamunkira (Jamankira), and Gobindpur Blocks of the northern region. It is rich in organic matter and is porus, and suitable for forest growth as well as for citrus and mango orchards. Sessamum and Arhar also grow.

(*ii*) Brown Forest Soil

It is found in Kuchinda Block and in a part of Rengali Block. The colour is brown and contains low organic matter. The soil obstructs free drainage. Generally scrub jungles grow well, so also pulses and millets. The soil is suitable for the growth of fruit trees like mango, *bel* and *sapeta*.

(*iii*) Sandy Soil

The soil is prevalent in high-lying or *At* and *Mal* lands on a watershed and is dependent on rainfall. The soil is coarse and contains low organic matter. Sand is there in a considerable measure. Groundnut and pulses (Mung, Biri and Kulthi) are grown. *At* lands are used for crops which are less dependent on moisture. Throughout the district, there is more variation in the unembanked *At* land growing light miscellaneous crops than in the rice land. Its soil in a closely cultivated tract is often little better than exhausted sand or gravel. In hilly wooded country it is more fertile. On the banks of the larger rivers, it resembles good silt. Paddy grows on *Mal* lands. The term

Mal is used for the slopes which are terraced to catch the surface drainage coming down from uplands. The lower terraces are wider and deeper than the upper, and cultivators carefully recognise the great difference in fertility and security of cropping between them, even distinguishing seed varieties for *tikra (high) mal* and *saman* (level) *mal*. The higher *mal* lands are light and dry, yielding light early crops which receive little more attention than the chance crops on unembanked *At* land. The lower *mal* lands, called *Pita mal*, get excellent drainage and grow good varieties of rice.

(*iv*) Clay Loam and Clay Soils

This category of soil is found in most of the *Berna* lands of the cultivated tract. The term *Berna* denotes lands towards the bottom of a depression, which receive the drainage from the slopes on either side and also from drainage line between them. Berna lands vary considerably according to their steepness and the stage of their development. In land newly broken up they are liable to have sand and gravel washed into them, but where it is under close cultivation the embankments of the terraced slopes prevent this. *Bahal* is a term used for flat land at the bottom of a depression or drainage line, the chief distinction between *Berna* and *Bahal* being that the former is narrow and steep and the latter wide and level. The best *Bahal* lands are served by large reservoirs, and so are secure from crop failure. The clay-loam soil contains various percentage of organic matter from different types of parent rock. In the northern range large percentage of mica is found. The soil is most found in Rengali, Jharsuguda, and Laikera areas. Another type of clay soil having high percentage of calcium is found in the Sambalpur Community Development Block area. The clay soil that occurs in the Riamal, Naktideul, Padampur, Paikmal, Bijepur, Bhatli, Ambabhona, and Gaisilat areas are rich in organic matter contents. The main crop is paddy.

(*v*) Black Cotton Soil

The soil is found in Dhama and Paikmal areas. It contains liberal amount of organic matter. During Khariff, paddy is generally grown and onion and sugar-cane during *Rabi*, under irrigated conditions. Mung and gram are grown as non-irrigated *Rabi* crop.

55. Principal Crops

The principal crops of the district are paddy, pulses (mung, biri, kulthi), oil-seeds (groundnut, til, mustard, castor), sugar-cane, millets and wheat. The total cropped area is about 1,485,000 acres (601,425 hectares). The area under different crops and their yield-rate are given at the end of this Chapter (Statement II).

(f) Paddy

Paddy is the staple crop of the district, occupying about 84 per cent of the total cropped area. Regarding varieties there is a local saying[1].

ମନୁଷ୍ୟର୍ ନାମ୍ ଯେତେ
ଧାନର୍ ନାମ୍ ଗୋଟେ ଊଣା ତେତେ

Which means :

As many names as man has,
Has paddy only one less.

It is worthwhile to quote the following account on paddy varieties from King's Gazetteer[2]-"The cultivators state that there are over 300 varieties of seed in use, and the Inspector of Agriculture, who is in charge of the agricultural farm at Sambalpur, claims to have collected 250 varieties from the villages of Attabira, Sason and Bargarh Thanas. The varieties are most simply classed by the position of the fields on which they grow most successfully, viz., as *bahal*, *berna*, *mal* and *at* rices. For example, a *bahal* variety will fail on upper *mal* terraces, and on the other hand *mal* varieties will rot in the wet *bahal*. These main classes are further subdivided into serveral minor groups.

"Among *bahal* rices *jhilliparagi* and *chinamal* need deep, well-cultivated, well-manured, and very wet land, while *kakudibija* and *mutive*, a most sturdy plant, will grow well at the bottom of any depression, and are commonly sown in the newly cleared land of jungle villages. Similarly, among *berna* rices, *baulkera* will grow only in the lower fields of a depression, while *tamdia* and *mugdhi* will do well on any *berna* field. The lower terraces of *mal* land will grow some of the sturdier *berna* varieties, but the favourite seeds are *banko* and a large family of striped or barred seeds. The uplands and the upper terraces grow coarse grains, usually black-husked. The colour distinction is said to be a good one, so far as it goes, because most of the best varieties are white-husked, the *mal* rices, which form the bulk of the crop, are reddish, and the coarse upland varieties are black. Commercially, only two classes are generally recognised, viz., the finer varieties, which can be husked readily after sun-drying, and the coarser, which have to be first parboiled or steamed and then dried. These are known as *arua* and *usuna* rice".

Methods of Paddy cultivation

The greater part of the paddy is sown broadcast. Only a small portion is transplanted. Transplantation is more marked in the Bargarh plain. As in other parts of India, there are three common ways of sowing broadcast, that is, dry sowing just before the rains break (*khardi*),

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1. Settlement Report of Sambalpur district, 1926
2. Sambalpur District Gazetteer (1932) by F. C. King, P. 132-33

sowing after the rains have broken and the ground is wet (*batri*), and sowing late with seeds previously germinated by soaking in water (*achhara*). The following description of the methods of cultivation is taken from Dewar's Settlement Report, 1906.

The amount of ploughing done before sowing time depends largely on the method of cultivation which is to be adopted, but it is usual to plough up all fields at least once before the rains break in June. Harvesting finishes by the end of November. Sometimes, in the case of low-lying *bahal* lands, it is not concluded till December. And as soon as threshing is over, the cultivator ploughs up his *bahal* fields to turn in the stubble. But the *mal* terraces reaped early in October dry up and harden very quickly, and cannot be touched, unless, as is often the case, heavy showers fall in January or February. The bulk of the work is left for the hot summer months, when heavy storms of thunder and rain usually break once a fortnight, and give the cultivator his chance to plough. It is then too that manure is spread and worked in.

(*a*) Khardi

The method of sowing known as *khardi* necessitates much preliminary ploughing, and is applied chiefly to bottom lands, which retain moisture long enough after harvest to admit of effective pulverisation. It can also be used on sandy upland soils, which soak readily after summer showers. The seed is sown broadcast a fortnight before the rains break or usually at the beginning of June. If the coming of the monsoon is delayed, and more showers fall, the seed germinates and dies. If the monsoon is ushered in with a heavy downpour, the seed is liable to be washed out, and this is one reason why the *khardi* method cannot be employed on steep terraces. Its advantages are that, if successful, it gives an early ripening crop, and it leaves the cultivator free for the sowing of his other land by other methods after heavy rain begins. The method is very popular among the people, especially having larger holdings, who find it convenient to set apart certain portions for *khardi*. About one-third of the total paddy area is covered by this system of cultivation.

(*b*) Batri

The most popular is the *batri* method, because it is applicable to the *mal* fields, which constitute the bulk of the rice land. These *Mal* fields bake after harvest to a brick-like hardness, and can be but lightly scratched until the monsoon has set in. They are then given a deeper ploughing and the seed is sown at once, usually in the beginning of July.

(*c*) Muka

The *muka* method may be applied to any embanked field, but most suitable to the lower plots of a *berna* dell. These have been lightly ploughed beforehand, when the rain comes in earnest they are flooded

deeply, the plough is put through water and mud, and the seed is sown on the thin slush thus worked up. After two days the water is gently drained off.

(*d*) Achhara

The *Achhara* method is an elaboration of *muka*, which can be applied to all fields with good embankments in a low and level position. Pre-monsoon ploughing is unnecessary. On the first full fall of rain the fields are flooded, and the plough is put twice through the water and mud. Four or five days later, the water is drained or scooped off, care being taken to leave no pools. The soft sediment is ploughed once more to break the remaining clods, and is then levelled with a board. Meanwhile, the seed has been germinated by being soaked in water for a day and a half, and then spread in baskets for another day. It is often put in by hand. If through carelessness any water has been left on the *achhara* field, the seed sown in this advanced condition will rot. It is necessary for success with both *muka* and *achhara* that the monsoon should be ushered in with heavy rain.

(*e*) Bihura

In the case of broadcast paddy, an important operation known as *bihura* is necessary early in August, when the plants are about a foot high. It consists simply in running a light plough up and down the field, thus uprooting a large preparation of the plants and leaving the rest sticking loosely in the mud in all directions. The effect is to kill off weeds and aerate the soil, besides thinning the plants. It is necessary that there should be from 4 to 6 inches of water in the fields, and if there is not, the cultivator must either irrigate or wait through the long droughts that occur in this month until sufficiently heavy showers fall. The operation is calculated to hasten growth on a sandy soil and obviate the danger which would result from a failure of the later rains. A crop thinned at an early date and then refreshed by light showers is secure, it will stand a long drought and yield a crop even if September be rainless. But if the first chance is missed and *bihura* is not accomplished until late in August, any shortage of the September and October rain will ruin the crop.

No other operations, except weeding in August and irrigation in bad seasons, are necessary until the crop is ripe. Cutting begins early in September for the coarse rice of the uplands, and on the Mal terraces it is usually finished in October. The heavier *berna* and *bahal* crops are reaped in November. In the case of low-lying *bahal* lands, harvesting sometimes does not take place till December.

(ii) **Pulses**

Of the pulses grown in the district, by far the important are *Biri* (*Phaseolus-radiatus*) and Mung (Phaseolus Mungo). Khesari, Bengal gram, Horse gram (Kulthi) and Field pea are also grown. *Biri* is generally grown in the *khariff* season, while other pulses are grown in the *rabi* season. The methods adopted for cultivation of Mung, Biri, gram and Kulthi are almost similar. Land is ploughed 2 to 3 times and then planked with the help of a ladder. Furrows are opened and farm-yard manure is applied at one foot gap. Seeds are then sown on the manure pockets. Ploughing is once more done to cover up the seeds and manure. Mung is grown largely in the rabi season. After the availability of canal irrigation, it occupies as a rabi crop a large portion in the canal irrigated areas. Field pea and *khesari* are sown broadcast in December in low-lying paddy lands, when there is standing crop. Paddy is harvested leaving high stumps. The stumps are left out for field pea and *khesari* to trail to it.

(iii) **Oil-seeds**

The important oil-seeds of the district include groundnut, sessamum (til) and castor. Of these, groundnut occupies the largest area of cultivation. It is grown in a large scale in Bargarh and Sambalpur subdivisions. The cultivation of sessamum is met with mostly in Kuchinda, Deogarh, and Rairakhol subdivisions. As we find in the last Gazetteer[1], sessamum was previously the principal oil-seed grown on 60,535 acres (24,517 hectares) and that "it is sown on uplands and is commonly the first crop taken from newly-broken land, where it gives a large yield, but it is also grown on very poor soils". But later, its cultivation declined due to the fact that in many parts upland paddy was grown where sessamum used to be grown formerly. This crop is now second in importance. Castor is grown, in a very limited scale, on tank bunds and contour bunds. Groundnut is cultivated in *khariff* and *rabi* seasons. Generally two varieties are grown, namely, bunch and spreading varieties. The former is gaining more popularity. The method of groundnut cultivation includes preliminary cultivation, opening of furrows at a distance of 1′—1½′, placing of seeds in the furrows at a distance of 6″—9″ and then harrowing to cover the seeds. When the plants are twenty days old, the first hoeing and inter-cultivation are given. The plants take flower 15 days after the first inter-cultivation. The harvesting takes place after 3-4 months.

(iv) **Sugar-cane**

The district grows sugar-cane of high quality. The Sambalpur District Gazetteer of 1932 states:

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1. Sambalpur District Gazetteer (1932) by F. C. King.—P. 136

"Next to rice, sugarcane is perhaps the most important crop grown in the district. for though the area it covers is small, it is tending to increase and the value of its produce is very considerable. In the course of the 20 years preceding the last settlement, the area under this crop had grown from 3,694 acres to 6,287 acres, an increase of 70 per cent. Twenty years ago, the only varieties of cane commonly grown in the district were *bangla* and *tandi*, but at present many other varieties have been introduced. The variety known as *khari* has become very popular. and the Agricultural Department is endeavouring to introduce the CO 213 cane from Coimbatore, which needs little irrigation, is not attacked by jackals and yields abundant juice producing very fine sugar.

"Sugarcane is grown, as a rule, not on special soils, but on any plot that can be easily irrigated. Land on which sugarcane is grown is called *barchha*. Formerly certain areas so situated as to be easily irrigated from the village tanks were permanently appropriated for sugarcane cultivation, and the cane was grown in common by all the villages. The practice of growing sugarcane on common *barchha* land has gradually disappeared. Now the cane is generally grown on scattered plots held by individual *rayats* and watered from tanks or by lift irrigation from wells.

"The cane is sown in March or April and cut in December, January and February. An acre of sugarcane will produce 40 or 50 Maunds (1,519 or 1,899 Kgs.) of gur, which is sold at Rs. 7-8-0 a Maund. There are no sugar factories in the district, but the tenants press the cane themselves in their own mills. There are two factories in Bargarh, which turn out cast-iron cane pressing mills, and these mills are in use all over the district, but the primitive wooden mill can still be found in many villages, especially in Sambalpur subdivision where wood is plentiful, and the mills can be obtained cheaply. Pressing generally takes place between sunset and sunrise, and the groaning and creaking of the rollers can be heard throughout the length and breadth of the district during the cold winter nights. The juice is boiled either in earthen pots or iron pans"*.

Mr. F. Dewar gives the following interesting sketch of the history of sugarcane cultivation in the district in his Settlement Report (1906):

"Sugarcane is the most valuable crop grown in the district, and at last settlement it ranked second in general importance to rice. But its area has fallen from 6,473 acres (2,622 hectares) to 3,693 acres (1,496 hectares). From 1890 it steadily declined till 1897-98, but since that

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* Sambalpur District Gazetteer (1932)—By F. C. King, pp. 137-138.

year it has again increased, and at present is rapidly extending. The causes of this change are curious and illustrate the general changes that have been taking place in the district.

"Before the railway came, the cultivation of cane ranked second only to that of rice, which it supplemented by providing work for farm labourers throughout the spring and hot weather. There was then little export of grain, but *gur*, being a less bulky commodity, was one of the principal articles of trade. Each village grew all its cane in common on land provided by the headman in the proximity of the principal tank. The cost and labour of fencing were shared by all, and the crop was cheaply produced. But as soon as the railway was opened, outside competition checked the trade in *gur* and at the same time doubled the profits of rice. It had been customary, even in years of comparatively short rainfall, to conserve half of the water of the principal village tank for cane irrigation in the hot months. It now became more profitable to use all the available water on the rice crop. One other cause at work was the increasing scarcity of fencing materials in the open tracts. Mud walls proved an inefficient protection against jackals, and even where cultivation continued, and inferior hard cane took the place of finer varieties. In the zamindari villages, though these are exposed to damage by pig and bear, fencing material is abundant, and the decline of the area under good cane has been less marked. After 1890—1900, the first rush for rice profits was over, and the price of rice, much inflated by bad seasons in the Central Provinces since 1895, became more steady. In some villages the cultivation of cane on the common land has been resumed, but in most cases the old custom has died out, and cultivators dig wells on their own holdings and work independent plots. Its expenses are heavy, but the crop provides for the consumption of the district, and in recent years the export of *gur* has recommenced on a small scale. It is not likely to develop rapidly unless there is some improvement in the present primitive methods of crushing the cane and of boiling down the juice".

Irrigation from Hirakud Dam provides the crop ample scope and facility. A sugar factory is being set up at Bargarh.

(v) Vegetables

The important vegetables are potato, cabbage, cauliflower, knol-khol, lady's finger, tomato, brinjal, peas, cucurbits, potol, radish and turnips. Potato is grown in winter. After harvesting of *khariff* crop, the land is prepared for its cultivation. Then furrows are opened at 1½′ intervals. Here the tubers are planted. Hoeing, weeding and manuring (top dressing of nitrogenous fertilizers), and earthing are done after twenty days. It needs irrigation 8—10 times at 10—15 days interval. The harvesting takes places after five months. Cole crops, such as cabbage

and cauliflower, are grown in a large scale in the *rabi* season. Land is ploughed 3-4 times in order to get a good tilth, after which transplanting of seedlings is done. Manure is applied before transplantation.

(vi) Fruits

On fruit-cultivation in the district, we get the following account from the King's Gazetteer (1932)[1]: "The light sandy soil of the district is most favourable for the growth of fruit trees, of which *mahua* (*Bassia Latifolia*) is not only the most common, but also the most important. Its flowers are of great value as a food to the people generally and especially to the aboriginals, by whom they are dried in the sun and stored throughout the year. They are also used for fattening cattle and for making spirit, while the fruit produces a thick oil used by the poorer classes for lamps, as well as the adulteration of *ghi*. Fine mango groves are to be seen in every part of the district, while the *tal* palm and the *khajur* or date palm are common on the banks of tanks. They are cultivated for the sake of their fruit, the kernel of the former being used with rice flour for making cakes. The guava is cultivated on the banks of *nullahs* in many villages, in the Bargarh plain, and the tamarind and jujube are fairly common. Other fruits, such as the orange, lemon citron, plantain, pine apple, pomelo, pomegranate, jack-fruit, leechi and rose-apple grow well".

During 1968-69, a total area of 6,058 hectares were under cultivation of various fruits. For details, see Statement II appended to this Chapter.

56. Agricultural Implements

Agricultural implements are generally antiquated. The ploughs are made of relatively superior wood, and this was possible because of the large forests around. Traditional implements still persist, though improved ones are becoming popular. The cultivators are showing interest in modern implements now for reasons of economy and efficiency. Of the modern implements now in use in the district, Rotary Paddy Weeders, roller type of paddy threshers, hand compression sprayers are popular among the cultivators. By far the most important agricultural implements are wooden plough, ladder, yoke, *kurda*, phourah, *kodali*, pick-axe and harrow.

57. Seeds

The cultivators take care for production of quality seeds and seedlings. They prepare and store paddy seeds thus: after harvesting, the crop is dried thoroughly and then threshed. It is further dried in the sun for 2 to 3 days. The seed is then stored in straw containers.

[1] Sambalpur District Gazetteer (1932)—By F. C. King-pp. 138 139.

Mung, *Biri* and *Kulthi* seeds are put in the sun until they get thoroughly dried. The seeds are then stored in straw containers and some quantities of *Neem* (Margosola) leaves and ashes are mixed therewith as a precaution against pest attacks. For preservation of seeds, the cultivators also make use of Central and State warehouses and cold storages. The following table shows the quantities of improved seeds distributed to cultivators:

Crop		1965-66 (in Kg.)	1966-67 (in Kg.)	1967-68 (in Kg.)
1. Paddy	..	413,746	1,279,107	140,255
2. Wheat	..	52,365	61,495	19,893
3. Groundnut	..	156,818	97,439	7,759
4. Maize	..	3,576	1,846	536
5. Ragi	..	7,309	4,339	75
6. Jute and Mesta	..	550	2,928	..
7. Pulses	..	23,974	10,425	2,170
8. Other oil-seeds	..	2,356	352	506
9. Potato	..	29,281	150,137	..

58. Crop Rotation

As discussed earlier, the cultivators of the district were raising single crop till the Hirakud canals carried water to their fields. When irrigation was assured and with organised extension work, they began taking to multiple cropping. Introduction of improved agricultural practices and of short duration high yielding varieties has provided opportunities for multiple cropping. Cultivators have begun growing even three crops in irrigated areas.

The following rotations are usually adopted :—

(1) *At* land	.. Groundnut	.. Potato, Vegetables
	Mung	.. Hy-maize, pumpkin
	Mung	.. Cauliflower, pumpkin.
(2) *Mal* lands	.. Paddy	.. Potato, Summer *til*
	Paddy	.. Groundnut, Summer Vegetables
	Jute	.. Groundnut, Summer Vegetables
	Early Paddy	.. Wheat
	Jute	.. Mustard
	Jute	.. Chillies
(3) *Berna* land	.. Early Paddy	.. Wheat
	Paddy	.. Pulses (Field-pea, Mung, Gram).
	Paddy	.. *Dalua paddy*
(4) *Bahal* land	.. Paddy	.. Field-pea (under sown).
	Paddy	.. *Dalua* paddy

59. Manures and Fertilizers

The cultivators apply compost, farm-yard manure and oil-cakes. This is a traditional practice. They do not , as a rule, keep their land fallow for the sake of increasing soil fertility. Green manuring is undertake to a limited extent. Use of farm-yard manure is extensive although quantity applied per unit area has greatly diminished chiefly on account of non-availability and high costs. There is a heavy demand for the compost provided by the few Municipalities in the district mainly from vegetable growers around towns.

With intensification of cropping and modernisation of agriculture, use of chemical fertilisers has greatly increased. The most preferred are Calcium Ammonium Nitrate, Ammonium phosphate, Di-ammonium phosphate, Ammonium sulphate, Urea, Supeiphosphate, Muriate of Potash.

A unique feature of the fertiliser consumption pattern of the district is that almost an ideal balance is maintained between Nitrogen and Phosphorus.

A statement showing the quantities of chemical fertilisers consumed during 1966-67 to 1969-70 is furnished below:—

Year	Consumption (*in tonnes*)
1966-67	10,751
1967-68	21,602
1968-69	36,930
1969-70	53,695

60. Crop Diseases and Pests

Diseases, pests and vermins like rats and birds cause considerable damage to crops. Damage is also caused by wild animals like boars, deer and elephants. The following diseases and pests are common. They are given separately for each crop :–

Paddy	.. Jassids, Gall fly, Stem borer, Leaf roller, Rice Hispa, Caseworm, Swarming Caterpillar, Blast, leaf-spot, Foot-rot and Stem-rot.
Sugarcane	.. Red rot, Shoot borer, and white ant.
Groundnut	.. Hairy caterpillar and Tikka disease
Wheat	.. Helminthosporium and smut
Potato	.. Early and late Blight

There are several ways to fight the pests and crop diseases. Superstition still plays its role to some extent. If infestation of pests is found in the rural areas, a group of females (seven in number) combine to prepare

cakes, locally called *manda*, of rice paste and the dead bodies of pests are kept inside these cakes. Then they drop these cakes in the river uttering: "You all go away". There is another practice by which a man goes on throwing pop paddy (*Lia*) and ashes in the pest-attacked plots, and simultaneously utters *mantras*. It is believed, this kills the pests. When the cultivator notices an attack of grass hopper, he catches hold of a pest from his field and puts vermilion mark on its forehead, pours wine on its body and puts it under a perforated pot. The cultivators, thereafter, drink and dance around the pot beating a drum called *Madel*. This usually takes place at night. In the following morning, the prey is let off. The underlying belief is that this sort of worship brings satisfaction to the pest and the pests move out of the fields. In order to prevent infestation of caseworm in rice, the water is drained out from the field and *karla* twigs are fixed at different spots. The plants are believed to develop immunity thereby from pest attack.

Now the cultivators prefer scientific remedies to superstitious practices. Several measures for protection of plants are being taken by Government.

61. Co-operative Farming

There are 48 farming co-operative societies having 1,014 members and 2,119 acres of land pooled for cultivation. There are three co-operative society circles in the district, namely, Sambalpur, Bargarh and Kuchinda. Sambalpur has only 4 of these societies with 123 members and 876 acres of land, while Bargarh has the remaining 44 societies with 891 members and 1,243 acres of land. Kuchinda has none.

62. Research Station

The Agricultural Research Station was set up at Sambalpur in 1954. The aim of starting this station was to evolve suitable cropping pattern for different types of land irrigated by Hirakud canals and to solve the problems confronted by cultivators. The research station:—

(*i*) Finds out suitable manurial and cultural practices for major crops of the area,

(*ii*) determines and selects the high-yielding varieties of crops,

(*iii*) studies the requirement of micronutrients of major crops,

(*iv*) surveys the insects, pests and diseases which affect major crops,

(*v*) finds out by field investigation the efficacy of newly invented insecticides and fungicides, and suggests suitable control measures.

The staff of this research station consists of one Agricultural Research Officer, 6 Assistant Research Officers, 5 Agricultural Overseers, one Agricultural Sub-Overseer, one Accountant, one Typist-*cum*-Clerk, 4 Fieldman Demonstrators, 3 Laboratory Attendants, 4 Peons, 3 permanent Labourers and 2 Chowkidars. The Agricultural Research Officer holds charge of the station.

The Orissa University of Agriculture and Technology is also building up a major regional research station at Chiplima.

63. Farms

(i) Central State Farm (Hirakud), Jharsuguda

The farm was established in 1967 by the Government of India (Ministry of Food and Agriculture) at a cost of Rs. 3·62 crores. It has been proposed to develop this farm by phases in an area of about 10,000 acres (4,050 hectares) in the foreshore and periphery areas of Hirakud reservoir in Jharsuguda Tahsil. The object of setting up this farm is to produce hybrid seeds of maize, wheat, vegetables, etc., in order to meet the increased requirement of seeds during the Fourth Five-Year Plan period (1969—74). The scheme also envisages utilization of the foreshore and periphery lands of Hirakud reservoir for the production of high-yielding varieties of seeds and foodgrains for compensating the loss the region has suffered due to submergence of cultivable lands by Hirakud reservoir. It will also serve as a demonstration centre for cultivation of improved and high-yielding varieties of crops. There are 109 persons on the farm staff. When the farm is fully developed, the Director of the farm expects that it can produce 48,652 maunds (18,483 quintals) of hybrid seeds, 153,000 maunds (58,125 quintals) of paddy/wheat and 58,000 maunds (22,034 quintals) of oil-seeds.

(ii) Chiplima Farm

Established in 1959, the farm is meant for seed multiplication. The farm is 21 miles (34 Kms.) away from Sambalpur. It is under the charge of a Farm Manager, under whom there are one Agricultural Overseer, two Agricultural Sub-Overseers, four Fieldman Demonstrators and ten permanent Labourers. The farm is under the District Agricultural Officer, Sambalpur. The total area it covers is 201 acres (81·4 hectares). So far, 125·55 acres (50·8 hectares) have been reclaimed for cultivation. The farm is watered mostly by lift irrigation and partly by flow water. The farm has been transferred to the Orissa University of Agriculture to establish a regional research station.

(iii) Lamal Farm

This is a seed farm. It was opened in 1957 at Lamal, 12 miles (19 kms.) away from Sambalpur. Its main purpose is to multiply improved strains of seed obtained from outside. Production of planting materials is also undertaken. The farm staff consists of one Agricultural Overseer, two Feildman Demonstrators and three permanent Labourers.

They work under the administrative control of the District Agricultural Officer, Sambalpur. The farm extends over an area of 61·11 acres (24·74 hectares) of which 12 acres (4·86 hectares) are *At* land, and 11·25 acres (4·55 hectares) *Mal* land, 29·36 acres (11·89 hectares) *Berna* land, and 8·50 acres (3·52 hectares) *Bahal* land. Only 45·29 acres (18·34 hectares) are now under cultivation. It has the advantage of canal irrigation.

(*iv*) **Gobindpur Farm**

Situated at a distance of about one mile from Bamra railway station, the farm was established during the ex-State Administration of Bamra. This is a fruit nursery and seed farm. The farm staff contains one Agricultural Sub-Overseer, one Mali and one permanent Labourer. They are under the administrative control of the District Agricultural Officer, Kuchinda. The farm area is 16·44 acres (7·65 hectares). Of this, 14·69 acres (5·95 hectares) are covered by *At* land and the rest by *Bahal* land. The orchard consisting of 259 mango trees covers 12·85 acres (5·20 hectares). Grafting is also taken up. The farm is irrigated from the Panchayat tank and surface wells by lift irrigation. The orchard receives water from a well by means of *tenda.*

(*v*) **Barakot Farm**

It was established by the ex-State Administration of Bamra. The farm is a fruit nursery and is about 20 miles (32 Kms.) from Deogarh. The farm staff comprises one Agricultural Sub-Overseer, two Malis and one permanent Labourer. The administrative control rests with the District Agricultural Officer, Kuchinda. It has an area of 10·20 acres (4·13 hectares). Of this, 9·14 acres (3·70 hectares) are under orchard which consists of mango, orange, mosambique, jack fruits and leechi trees. Most of them are fruit-bearing plants. The farm is watered by lift irrigation from the Kola (Kalla) *nala.*

(*vi*) **Bargarh Farm**

This is a seed farm. It came into exitence in 1944. The farm occupies an area of 30 acres (12·15 hectares). Of this, 26 acres (10·53 hectares) are under cultivation. The entire cultivated area is irrigated. An Agricultural Sub-Overseer manages the farm under the administrative control of the District Agricultural Officer, Bargarh.

(*vii*) **Lachida Farm**

The farm was established in 1957, at a distance of 16 miles (26 Kms.) from Bargarh. It has a total area of 214·33 acres (86·80 hectares). It receives water from canal and lift irrigation. Major crops grown in the farm are groundnut, sugar-cane, kulthi, maize and banana. The Farm Superintendent is in charge of it.

(viii) **Barpali Farm**

Established in 1948, the farm is situated at a distance of 12 miles (19 Kms.) from Bargarh. The total area is 157·63 acres (63·84 hectares). Of this, 16 acres (6·48 hectares) are under agronomical experiments, 4·03 acres (1·63 hectares) under orchard and 97·49 acres (39·47 hectares) under crops. About 54 acres (21·87 hectares) get irrigation. It is under the charge of a Farm Manager. The District Agricultural Officer, Bargarh, is the controlling officer.

(ix) **Burkel Farm**

The farm came into existence in 1957. It is situated in a non-irrigated area of Padampur which is 52 miles (84 Kms.) from Bargarh. The total area of the farm is 47·14 acres (19 hectares). The farm is irrigated by tank and well. A Farm Manager holds charge of the farm and the administrative control rests with the District Agricultural Officer, Bargarh.

(x) **Gambharipali Farm**

This farm started in 1956. It extends over an area of 571·11 acres (231·30 hectares). Banana suckers and improved seeds are produced here. The farm receives irrigation from canals and tanks, and also by means of pump. The farm Superintendent is in charge of the farm and the staff under him consists of about 80 persons.

(xi) **Demonstration Farm, Chakuli**

The farm started in 1967-68. It has an area of 45·09 acres (18·26 hectares). Production of improved seeds is practised here. The farm receives irrigation from canal. The farm staff consists of one Agricultural Sub-Overseer, two Fieldman Demonstrators and three permanent Labourers.

(xii) **School Farm, Parmanpur**

The farm came into being in 1956. The farm covers an area of 67·69 acres (27·41 hectares). Multiplication of improved seeds are done in this farm. It has the advantage of canal and tank irrigation. The farm staff consists of one Agricultural Overseer, two Fieldman Demonstrators, three permanent Labourers and one Peon-*cum*-Chowkidar.

(xiii) **Sisal Farm, Nildungri-*cum*-Beldungri**

The Nildungri Sisal Farm situated at a distance of 9 miles (14½ Kms.) from Sambalpur town on Sambalpur-Deogarh Road commands an area of 751 acres (304·15 hectares), and at Beldungri having an area of 730 acres (295·65 hectares), 20 miles (32 Kms.) from Sambalpur.

The farm was established in 1906 by late John Martin Casey, an Irish gentleman. After his death in 1940, it was managed by his daughters. Mr. Casey was a businessman in Assam and used to come to Sambalpur to pay visit to his relatives. As he was fond of game, he used to visit the reserved forests of Sambalpur district. He had a special fascination for agriculture and he selected the patch of land for sisal cultivation. He had gathered the know-how regarding sisal from one of his relatives serving in a Sisal estate in Africa. Agave Sisalana was the main crop raised here. Its planting materials were collected by him from East Africa.

The farm was purchased by the Government of Orissa at a cost of Rs. 7 lakhs from Mr. Casey's daughters on the 29th April, 1964 and is being managed by Soil Conservation Department of Orissa.

An Assistant Soil Conservation Officer, being assisted by 2 U. D. Clerks and 2 L. D. Clerks, 2 Choukidars, 2 Peons, 2 Senior Soil Conservation Assistants, 4 Surveyors, 8 Fieldman Demonstrators, 15 Cattle Attendants-*cum*-Ploughmen, one Operator-*cum*-Mechanic, one Jeep Driver and one Tractor Operator, has been kept in charge of management of the farm.

At the time of taking over the farm, 700 acres (283·50 hectares) were covered with Sisal plantation. In the following 2 years, 150 acres (60·75 hectares) more have been brought under this plantation and fertilisers have been applied to the plants to increase the length of the leaves.

From commercial point of view double row methods of planting is being followed to accommodate larger number of plants, i.e., 3,500 plants per acre, to give more yield of Sisal fibre and to facilitate harvesting of leaves. By this method, the inter-space between double rows is 7' and space between plant to plant is 3' and plant row to plant row is 1'.

Calpogonium and Bogamedula have been introduced in the inter-space as leguminous crop to control weed growth and to improve the fertility status of the soil. As the life period of the Sisal plant is 12 years, every year 50 to 60 acres (20·25 to 24·30 hectares) have been covered with Sisal.

Every year about 8 to 10 lakhs of Sisal suckers and 3 to 4 lakhs of Sisal bulbils are collected from Sisal plantation area for sale and for farm use. The bulbils are raised in the nursery over an area of 7 acres (2·83 hectares) and made ready for plantation after attaining the height of 10" to 12" in one year. As the species of Agave Sisalina is rare in India, there is much demand for the same. The suckers and builbils have been supplied to other States for purposes of propagation. The suckers and bulbils are sold at 10 paise and 0·06 paise each respectively.

Paddy Cultivation

During the time of private owner, paddy was being cultivated over an area of only 3 to 4 acres (1·21 to 1·62 hectares). Now it has extended to over 20 acres (8·10 hectares). The paddy obtained is supplied to the workers of the farm.

Vegetables are also grown for supply to the workers.

Orchards

There is an orange orchard at Nildungri over 1·25 acres (50 hectares) yielding an annual income of about Rs. 2,000. Grafts are also made in the orchard.

Labourers

There were 137 permanent labourers at the time Government took over the farm. Most of the permanent labourers have been provided with free quarters of thatched houses in the colony located at Nildungri and Beldungri Sisal Farms.

Cattle

The State Government got with the farm 90 heads of cattle including bulls, bullocks, cows and heifers maintained by the private owner for cultivation and transportation work. The services of the bullocks were best utilised in transporting the leaves from Beldungri to Nildungri covering a distance of 11 miles. Paragrass has been cultivated over 1 acre to supply green fodder to the cattle throughout the year.

It has been decided to dispose of all the cattle except 15 pairs of bullocks. Day-to-day work could be managed by the existing tractof and the 15 pairs of bullocks.

Yearwise production of Sisal fibre and ropes at Nildungri and Beldungri are as below.

Year		Fibre (in quintals)	Rope (in quintals)
1964-65	..	597·21	37·14
1965-66	..	608·76	13·38
1966-67	..	700·00 (anticipated)	13·00 (anticipated)

Yearwise expenditure and income of Sisal farm at Nildungri and Beldungri are as below.

Year		Expenditure	Income
		Rs.	Rs.
1964-65	..	1,57,100	1,61,728
1965-66	..	2,01,165	3,34,800
1966-67	..	2,49,800 (Sanctioned)	3,00,000 (anticipated)

(xiv) Sisal Research Station, Bamra

The farm was started with a view to conducting agricultural research on various aspects of Sisal culture. It covers an area of 266·13 acres (107·78 hectares). The exact date of its inception is not available but it was transferred to the Indian Central Jute Committee by Orissa Government on the 16th June, 1962. It is now under the administrative control of the Indian Council of Agricultural Research, New Delhi.

The average annual production of Sisal fibre at this research station is about 83 quintals. The produce is marketed in Calcutta. The fibre produced in 1968-69 was sold at Rs. 206 per quintal.

There is no factory for rope making and for fibre extraction. Fibre is extracted by hand decorticators and also by small decorticating machines driven by petrol engines.

The staff consists of 23 members headed by the Junior Research Officer.

64. State Assistance to Agriculture

Loans are advanced to cultivators under the Agriculturists Loans Act 1884 and the Land Improvement Loans Act, 1883. The following table shows the amounts of loan advanced under the above two Acts during different years in the district. Besides this, irrigation loans amounting to Rs. 3,750 and Rs. 3,000 were distributed during 1966-67 and 1967-68 respectively in Rairakhol subdivision.

Agricultural and Land Improvement Loans

Year		Agricultural Loan	L. I. Loan	Total
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1964-65	.	58,200	1,19,380	1,77,580
1965-66	..	6,37,665	1,63,900	8,01,565
1966-67	..	23,81,100	2,69,780	26,50,880
1967-68	..	4,70,000	1,16,280	5,86,280

65. Package Programme

The Package Programme, formally known as the Intensive Agricultural District Programme, was formulated on the basis of recommendations of a team of experts appointed by the Government of India to probe the food problem of the country in 1959. They recommended concentration of resources in physically potential areas with responsive farmers, well-developed co-operative institutions, and rural leadership. The programme consists of farm planning, of individual farmers provision of adequate and timely credit and supplies of fertilisers, seeds,

pesticides etc., irrigation and marketing. The agency through which the scheme was to work was the Community Development Organisation of the concerned State the higher level expertise being provided by the Agriculture Department.

The Programme taken up with these objectives, in collaboration with the Government of India and the Ford Foundation, started operating in Sambalpur district from 1962. The choice of Sambalpur for this programme was chiefly due to the Hirakud Dam Project which has an irrigable area of a little less than 3,00,000 acres. The co-operative institutions, including the District Central Co-operative Bank, had also attained a fair level of development and were further strengthened. The programme covers 29 Community Development Blocks in the district. At the beginning, it was taken up in the following 15 Blocks : Sambalpur-I (Dhankauda), Rengali, Jamunkira, Kuchinda, Jharsuguda, Laikera-I, Laikera-II (Kirmira), Bargarh, Attabira, Bheran (Bheden), Barpali, Gaisilat, Padampur, Paikmal and Jharbandh. In 1964-65 the programme was extended to 8 more Blocks, namely Sohela, Bijepur, Ambabhona, Lakhanpur, Laikera-III (Kolabira), Bhatli, Sambalpur-II (Manesar), and Sambalpur-III (Jujomura). The remaining six Blocks : Gobindpur, Riamal, Naikul, Barakot, Rairakhol and Naktideul were covered under the programme from 1st April, 1970.

Development of individual farm plans for farmers on the basis of a simple package of practices for different crops forms the basis of the programme. Through these plans the programme seeks to emphasise on use of good seeds, scientific cultural practices, use of adequate fertilisers at the right time and in proper quantities, better water use and suitable plant protection measures. This package of practices is drawn up jointly by the team of specialists at the district level in consultation and collaboration with other scientists working at the State and National level as well as the Ford Foundation in India.

The following table gives the progress under Farm Planning under the Programme.

Year		No. of Farm Plans	Extent of coverage under Farm Plans (Acres)
1962-63	..	23,062	50,970
1963-64	..	29,280	1,27,607
1964-65	..	45,958	1,70,993
1965-66	..	54,349	1,61,474
1966-67	..	46,213	1,71,208
1967-68	..	50,171	2,78,867
1968-69	..	76,492	3,03,232
1969-70	..	1,10,663	4,53,625

It may be seen from the above table that there has been progressive increase in the number and size per farm plan from year to year. Many farmers who have not come under the farm planning process but are nevertheless following some of the improved techniques and there has been gradual advancement in the technical standard of farming in the district.

Farm Credit

The primary societies were reorganised and strengthened. The loaning procedure was modified for ensuring easy availability of credit. There are 168 Service Societies in the district. More than 40 per cent of the rural population is covered by these societies.

Consumption of Fertilisers

Before the programme came into operation, the annual consumption of fertiliser in the district was a little over one thousand tonnes. But the following statement shows how the position has changed in subsequent years.

Year	Consumption of fertiliser (in tonnes)
1962-63	3,508
1963-64	5,713
1964-65	8,716
1965-66	12.616
1966-67	10,751
1967-68	21,602
1968-69	36,930
1969-70	53,695

During Rabi cropping, larger numbers of farmers are using fertiliser for Dalua Paddy (Summer Paddy). With assured irrigation from the Hirakud canals, the fertiliser consumption in irrigated areas has increased considerably particularly during Rabi season.

Soil Testing

The Soil Testing Laboratory at Sambalpur was remodelled with the assistance of the U. S. A. I. D., Ford Foundation, and the State Government. The Laboratory is now handling nearly 15,000 soil samples per year.

Plant Protection :

The Plant Protection organisation in the district has been strengthened with adequate stocks of pesticides and plant protection equipments at district, block and Grama Panchayat headquarters. Before launching of the programme (i. e., in 1961-62), spraying was done to 44,842 acres and seed dressing to 44 tonnes of seeds. The following figures give the work done in various years.

Year	Spraying (in acres)	Seed dressing (in tonnes)
1962-63	118,383	155
1963-64	148,282	1,497
1964-65	83,212	1,196
1965-66	102,113	1,296
1966-67	104,376	1,512
1967-68	132,000	2,167
1968-69	107,325	2,012

Agricultural Information Service

The Agricultural Information Service at the district level has been equipped to disseminate technical know-how through different communicating media such as spoken words, written words and other audio-visual aids. The Radio Services of Sambalpur Station of All-Indis Radio was found to be very effective. Daily news of different aspects are broadcast at 7.30 A. M. (5 minutes), 1.05 P. M. (5 minutes) and 7.30 P. M. (30 minutes). Special talks on various aspects of farming are also broadcast every Tuesday and Friday. There are 300 Radio rural forums besides *charcha mandals* in the district. The leaflets and bulletins are directly mailed to 10,000 individual farmers and village institutions.

High yielding varieties and multiple cropping

High Yielding Varieties Programme was initiated in the district in Rabi 1965-66 with few imported varieties of paddy. Subsequently with the rapid change in technology, new high yielding varieties of paddy, wheat, maize, Jowar and Bajra evolved within the country, gained popularity in the district. Introduction of new technology brought in a change in the concept of growing field crops. New problems were faced in the field and solution of these problems needed constant attention. Gradually new varieties of crops, suited to different agro-climatic conditions, were grown. Introduction of short duration high yielding varieties also provided apportunities for g owing more than one crop in irrigated and rainfed areas.

The area under high yielding paddy progressively increased from 12,058 acres in 1965-66 to 1,26,599 acres in 1969-70. The area under high yielding wheat and other crops also increased rapidly during the period.

The Hirakud Canal System irrigates about 2·7 lakh acres during kharif and 1·62 lakh acres during Rabi cropping. Though the canal water was flowing since 1957-58, it remained largely unutilised. High Yielding Varieties Programme and water use demonstration helped proper utilisation of water and by 1968-69 almost the entire Rabi irrigation potential was utilised. Farmers have also begun growing three crops in the irrigated area. In the district, as a whole, the double cropped area increased from 87,000 acres in 1961-62 to 2,26,000 acres in 1969-70, the major increases being under relatively intensive crops.

The district faced a severe drought during 1965-66. The drought extended over the entire State of Orissa and was said to be the worst during the century. For Khariff sowings in 1966, following the drought in 1965-66 the IADP Organisation succeeded in procuring, testing and despatching 353,000 maunds (about 131,740 quintals) of paddy seeds to different parts of the State where seed supply position had become critical. It was observed that some of the high yielding varieties of paddy can also withstand partial drought conditions and crops like Bajra and Jowar can be grown successfully in high lands of rainfed areas. Attention is now being focussed on the rainfed areas in growing suitable varieties of different crops, on cropping pattern, cultural practices, etc.

Demonstration

Emphasis is laid on the quality of demonstration on cultivator's field. Initially a large number of small-sized demonstrations wers laid to educate the farmers the combined use of production practices on the yield of different crops. After four years of operations, large-sized cropping pattern demonstrations are being conducted.

An analysis of the results of demonstration indicates that due to adoption of Package of Practices the average increase of yield obtained was more than 3·60 quintals/acre or 46·6 per cent over local practices ; and the return per rupee of investment was about a rupee. High Yielding paddy gave an average yield of 18·12 quintals/acre as compared to 11·16 quintals/acre for improved paddy. Besides paddy, demonstrations were also conducted in groundnut, potato, wheat and other crops.

From the crop pattern demonstration, it is seen that with the recommended Package of Practices the net return from H. Y. Paddy and H. Y. Wheat is Rs. 566 and Rs. 540, respectively per acre and a paddy-wheat rotation can be equally profitable, as a double crop pattern, in land suitable for wheat cultivation. A short duration Mung or mustard can be successfully taken up as a catch crop between two crops of paddy.

General

The programme has created an initiative among farmers for intensive cultivation. There has been a spectacular rise in consumption

of fertilisers and in adoption of plant protection measures. The average yield of rice has consistently remained over the State average and even in 1965-66 which was the worst drought year in the district, the yield rate maintained higher than that in the adjoining districts. Besides, there has been a phenomenal increase in the production of Dalua Paddy. In 1961-62, the area under Dalua Paddy was about 29,507 acres and the production was around 10 to 11 mds./acre. By 1965-66, the Dalua Paddy area in the district increased to 78,000 acres and in 1967-68 to 110,000 acres with an estimated total production of about 150,000 tonnes. The average yield of Autumn and Winter paddy, based on results of crop-cutting experiments by Bureau of Statistics, is given below.

Yield of clean rice/quintal per acre.

	1961-62 (Base year)	1964-65	1968-69 (Provisional)
1. Autumn paddy	2·35	3·28	3·65
2. Winter paddy	3·95	5·26	4·50

Further the rise in the acreage and production of vegetables, oil-seeds (especially groundnut) potatoes, etc. also indicate a definite tendency towards a healthier and more balanced economy in rural areas.

66. Animal Husbandry

(i) Condition of Cattle

On this aspect, the Settlement Report of 1926 states: "The cattle of the district are generally poor looking and diminutive in size. The principal cause of this is insufficiency of bulls and the practice of using immature young bulls for service for a short time and then castrating them for plough work. The total number of cows in the district is 114,070, but the number of bulls is only 1,331".

The condition of cattle we find in F. C. King's Sambalpur Gazetteer (1932), which more or less holds good today, is reproduced below: "The cattle of the district are miserably poor and of small size, but fortunately heavy cattle are not required for the plough owing to the light, sandy soil. For draught purposes, larger animals are imported. Breeding bulls intended to improve the breed of draught cattle have, however, recently been supplied by the agricultural department to interested cultivators, and six bulls have newly been brought to the agricultural farm for the same purpose. The poverty of the cattle is mainly due to the carelessness of the people about breeding, and also to the want of nourishing food. For the greater part of the year, the cattle are given no food by their owners, they are turned out each morning, in the charge of the village herdsmen, to pick up what they can, and it is only in the hot weather months that some rice straw is thrown before them when they return at nightfall. During the rainy season and cold weather, they lie without food or water all night. No fodder crop is grown, silage is unknown and after the month of November, the grazing grounds of the open tracts yield the minimum of fodder.

"Buffaloes are largely used for cultivation and frequently also for draught and for pressing oil and sugarcane. They are not bred locally to any great extent, but imported from the northern districts through Bilaspur and Sirguja. Those reared in the district are distinctly inferior in quality. Ponies used to be kept by the well-to-do for riding, but are now scarce, owing to the introduction of bicycles on a large scale. Goats and sheep in small quantities are kept by the lower castes for food only, no use being made of the sheep's wool. Bhukta near Ambabhona is the largest cattle market in the district and after it ranks those of Bargarh and Talpatia".

(*ii*) **Fodder Cultivation**

Fodder cultivation is practised in a small scale. Chiefly Guinea grass, Napier grass, Elephant grass, jowar and bazra are cultivated. In some places, the Soil Conservation Department has taken up fodder cultivation.

(*iii*) **Milk Supply**

There are about 9 Goshalas which to a small extent meet the milk demand. These Goshalas are run by private bodies. The State Government provides subsidy in the form of stud bulls, milch cows and assistance for fodder cultivation. The major portion of milk supply is made by the individual milkmen. The dairy at chiplima also meets a portion of demand in nearby towns. The average milk-yield of a Deshi cow varies from ½ lb. to ¼ lb.a day.

(*iv*) **Sheep Breeding**

Sheep are close graziers and can easily be grazed with cattle. They are very docile and due to their flocking instinct they can easily be managed by boys and even by women in the villages. Mutton is in great demand in Orissa due to growing population. The Indian Council of Agricultural Research does not encourage goat-breeding, hence Sheep Development Scheme is being taken up to supply the people with protein food. Sale of progenies by villagers is also lucrative. The climatic conditions of Orissa are not congenial to the woolly breed of sheep. The Indian Council of Agricultural Research have, therefore, advocated the introduction of mutton breeds of sheep in the State. Bannur breed of sheep has been considered ideal for the purpose. The sheep development scheme has been in operation in Sambalpur district since 1964-65.

The Government of India decided to take up sheep development work in Orissa under "crash programme" and Sambalpur district was selected for operation of the scheme. Accordingly, a sheep-breeding farm was established at Chiplima in 1964-65 in the campus of State Live-stock Breeding Farm, which covers an area of about 2,000 acres (810 hectares). The sheep breeding farm started with a foundation stock of 38 ewes and 2 rams of Bannur breed. The total cost was Rs. 8,000. The purpose of the scheme was to supply protein

food and to develop a disease resistant stock suited to local conditions. The farm expanded during 1966-67 involving a cost of Rs. 55,700 and the total number of Bannur breed rose to 331 (312 ewes and 19 rams). Further more, 1,325 sheep of Bannur breed were purchased during 1964-65, 956 during 1965-66, 640 during 1966-67 and 201 during 1967-68. These were purchased for distribution among farmers on exchange basis. The distribution was taken up in 6 Community Development Blocks of Sambalpur district, i. e., Sambalpur I, Sambalpur II, Sambalpur III, Jharsuguda, Attabira, and Rengali. Till the end of 1967-68, 2,296 sheep have been distributed among 209 villagers, and 69 female progenies were received back as part of recoupment. The farm staff comprises one Farm Manager, two veterinary technicians, two veterinary stockmen, two peons, 14 attendants, one chowkidar, one jeep driver and five veterinary technicians for extension work.

(V) Pig Breeding and Goat Rearing Farm, Chiplima

The Pig Farm was started in 1965 with a stock of 30 pigs for developing pig breeding and for extending the benefits to tribal people. Two breeds—yorkshire large white and middle white—are maintained here. From 1966 to 1970 (December), it has distributed 129 pigs (66 boars and 63 sows) in Sundargarh and Sambalpur districts. The sale proceeds are as follows :—

1967-68	Rs. 7,983
1968-69	Rs. 2,680
1969-70	Rs. 2,860
1970-71 (up to December)	Rs. 4,625

The goat rearing farm was started in 1965 with a stock of 203 goats. It was set up for producing improved varieties of bucks, for undertaking research to evolve suitable breed for the State, and for distribution of goats to interested persons for breeding purposes. Only 13 goats (3 bucks and 10 does) were distributed in 1967-68 and 12 goats (2 bucks and 10 does) in 1968-69. There are now (1970) 145 goats in the farm.

Both the farms, run by Animal Husbandry Department, are in charge of a Manager. Both are situated in the campus of State Live-stock Breeding Farm, Chiplima.

(VI) Special Poultry Unit, Chiplima

The Special Poultry Unit, situated in the State Live-stock Breeding Farm at Chiplima, was started in 1966. The farm took its shape after the Regional Poultry Farm, Sundargarh shifted to Chiplima in 1966 Initially, the Tribal and Rural Welfare Department was giving financial assistance. From 1967-68 this assistance has stopped. Now it is entirely financed and run by the Animal Husbandry Department. The aim of starting this farm was to supply improved breeds to tribal people as a means of encouragement to take up poultry industry and thereby improve their economic condition. The farm also partially caters

to the needs of people in Hirakud, Burla, Chiplima and Sambalpur towns. During 1970 (December), total poultry numbered 1,088, consisting of 98 cocks and 990 hens. White Leg Horn, Rhode Iland Red and Australop varieties of birds are reared here. The farm is charge of a Manager.

67. Animal Diseases

Common animal diseases are Rinderpest, Haemorrhagic Septicaemia, Foot and Mouth Disease, Black Quarter and Anthrax. The last District Gazetteer (1932) states "The most common disease is rinderpest, which in 1929-30 caused 793 deaths". These diseases make their appearance at any time during the year, but it is more marked during monsoons. The following table shows attacks and deaths from different diseases:

Diseases	1965-66		1966-67		1967-68	
	Attacks	Deaths	Attacks	Deaths	Attacks	Deaths
Rinderpest ..	461	205	372	125	182	83
Haemorrhagic Septicaemia.	573	260	489	155	294	164
Foot and Mouth diseases.	1,119	4	756	18	14,649	93
Black Quarter	155	113	121	97	231	164
Anthrax ..	24	24	..	..	8	3
Other diseases	182	128	566	264	787	134

Mass Vaccination has been undertaken for eradication of rinderpest.

Veterinary Hospitals

A Veterinary dispensary was opened at Sambalpur in June 1906, and another at Bargarh in 1909. Before 1950, there were 7 dispensaries in all. At present (1968). the total number of Veterinary dispensaries is 33 including 2 Hospitals at Bargarh and Sambalpur. In addition, there are 86 stockman centres. A full list of these dispensaries and stockman centres is given at the end of this chapter (Statement III).

Live-stock

The number of live-stock in 1961 was as follows:—

Cattle	..	955,254
Buffalo	..	85,410
Sheep	..	64,366
Goat	..	208,503
Horse and Pony	..	9,432
Mule	..	4
Donkey	..	25
Camel	..	11
Pig	..	3,619
Total Live-stock	..	**1,326,624**
Total poultry	..	**581,132**

(d) Fisheries

Numerous varieties of fish are available in the district. Names of those fish-varieties have been given in Chapter I (General).

(i) Fish-rearing

Water area available for fish rearing is about 50,000 acres (20,250 hectares). Usually fish seed is collected either from Fisheries Department or from private seed traders. At the end of 1 or 2 years when fish is demanded by the local people, specially in summer months, the villagers catch fish mostly by cutting the bunds or *hudas*. Very few catch by the netting assistance offered by Fisheries Department.

The main sources of fish supply are the Hirakud Dam Reservoir. Grama Panchayat tanks, Departmental Farms at Barpali and Sambalpur, and the river-stretch below the Hirakud Dam.

(ii) Implements

The *following* implements are used to catch fish

Bamboo traps	..	Baza, Bendu, Poluha, Thapa, Thopi or *Khainchi, Kumuna, Dhauri of various sizes mainly to catch minor fish, chuna,* crabs, prawns and tortoise.
Nets	..	*Kadijal* with 3′—5′ *sticks* holding nets of different mesh mostly ¼″—½″. These are made of yarn. Nylon gillnets and fishing dragnent of nylon and Madura yarn used by netting parties of the Fisheries Department.
Rods	..	Angling rods and lines for both fixed and wheeled rod and line of different size.

(*iii*) In 1930, pisciculture was so to say non-existent The Mahanadi was the sole natural source of fish-supply. In this connection, the Sambalpur District Gazetteer (1932) states—"Fish of many varieties including *mahseer, rohu* and *tengra* are found in the Mahanadi and other rivers. The Government has made fishing on the Mahanadi free and, following this example, the zamindars have, as a rule, left fishing free in the rivers in their estates. No attempt, worthy of notice, has been made in the direction of fish culture in tanks or preserved waters". After construction of the Hirakud Dam, pisciculture made a great stride and the district got ample supply of fish from the Hirakud reservoir. The Grama Panchayats also started fish-culture in a number of tanks transferred to them or newly constructed by them. Pisciculture by private persons has also been boosted

[illegible] Forestry

The forests in the district extend over an area of about 2,351 square miles split up as below :

Name of Forest Division		Reserved forest (Sq. miles)	Khesra forest (Sq. miles)	Other forest (Sq. miles)	Total forest area (Sq. miles)
1. Bamra	..	332·940	20·000	267·860	620·800
2. Deogarh *	..	246·090	177·880	..	423·970
3. Rairakhol *	...	387·267	60·680	...	447·947
4. Sambalpur	–	489·210	14·680	131·540	634·820
5. Padampur (Range)		..	..	223·930	223·930
Total	–	1,455·507	273·240	623·330	2,351·467

The nature of forests is mainly that of northern tropical dry deciduous type, though in some parts in Deogarh moist deciduous species occur.

The forests are of three main types (*i*) Sal (Shorea robusta), which is the principal species, (*ii*) the dry-mixed forests, and (*iii*) the bamboo forest.

In the first category of forests, Sal is preponderant covering more than 70 per cent of crops. Sal is found in the deeper, damper and better drained soils. In Deogarh Division, it occurs on hill-slopes in the east and in the central part of the division, in the Pravasuni along eastern bank of river Brahmani, and in Gogwa. Generally. slopes and hill-tops support poor dry type of growth. As one goes up the hill, the quality tends to get poorer until on the top one comes across stunted trees. The soil, having become impoverished due to down-wash by rain and low water-retaining capacity, is responsible for the poor and drier types of forests. In Rairakhol, it occurs throughout the plains and hill-slopes. In Padampur, these forests are confined to Bhoibahal and Jharbandh blocks, and sparingly in Gandhamardan block. These forests also occur in Ushakothi. The usual associates of Sal are Asan or Sahaj (Terminalia tomentosa), Dhaura (Anogeissus latifolia), Bija (Pterocarpus marsupium), Kendu (Diospyros melanoxylon,) Piar or Char (Buchanania latifolia), Senha (Lagerstroemia parviflora), Gambhar (Gmelina arborea), Jamun (Eugenia jambolana), Halland or Kurum (Adina cordifolia), Sisoo or rosewood (Dalbergia latifolia) and mango (Mangifera indica).

* These Forest Divisions have also areas outlying the district. Forest areas lying only in Sambalpur district are given in the Statement.

In mixed forests, Sal is usualy less than 70 per cent of the crops. These forests are composed of semi xerophytes, many of which are deciduous, although some, such as Karla (Cleistanthus collinus), come into full foliage in the beginning of hot weather. This type of forest is most conspicuous where the soil, being too dry and shallow for Sal, contains quartz or quartzite which prevents the influx of bamboos. Dry mixed forests cover a small area. The common species found in this type of forests are Karla (Cleistanthus collinus), Anla (Emblica officinalis), Kendu (Diospyros melanoxylon), Char (Buchanania latifolia), Senha (Largerstroemia parviflora), Bija (Pterocarpus marsupium), Mahul (Mudhuca latifolia), Salia (Boswellia serrata), Kuren (Helarrhena anti-dysenterica), Dhaura (Anogeissus latifolia), Gambhar (Gmelina arborea), Sahaj (Terminalia tomentosa), Sisoo (Delbergia latifolia), and Simul (Bombax malabaricum). Bamboos also occur intermingled with these species.

Bamboos (Dendrocalamus strictus), that is Saliabans, are quite common and may be said to be everywhere except on soils where there is quartzite or micaceous and hornblende schists. Bamboos seldom grow pure. They overlap the first two categories of forests. They grow with Sal forests. They grow with mixed forests. Pure bamboos only occur over large areas in Kansar forest block. Bamboos are found over large areas in Hatidhara, Kholgarh, Sagmalia, Bindhyabasini, Pravasuni, Gogwa and Kansar forest blocks. Kantabans (Bambousa arundinacea) and Molinbans (Cephalostachyum pergracile) are found in small areas.

Economic Importance

Forests occupy an important place in the economy. They influence agriculture. A perennial vegetative cover is maintained by forests which checks soil erosion, prevents greater run-off of water, and helps in raising the water level. They yield a variety of products and earn a good revenue. The following statement shows the revenue earned from forests during 1967-68 and 1968-69.

Name of Forest Division		1967-68 Rs.	1968-69 Rs.
1. Bamra	..	16,04,051	23,92,815
2. Deogarh	...	10,75,607	20,24,726
3. Rairakhol	...	42,45,381	51,63.394
4. Sambalpur	...	28,70,423	38,80,733
5. Padampur (Range)	..	8,16,778	12,31,957
Total	..	1,06,12,240	1,46,93,625

The principal forest produce are timber, firewood, bamboo and Kendu leaf. Availability of raw materials from forests made it possible for the installation of forest-based industries. The Orient Paper Mills at Brajarajnagar owes its existence to the forests of Sambalpur from where it gets bamboos in abundance. The basket-makers (Betras) live on bamboo works. So their requirement of bamboo is considerable. Bamboos are held in great demand, for the wattling of house-walls and roofs, for making screens, baskets, and mats, and for fencing gardens and cane fields. Of 22* Saw Mills in the district, 13 are operating at Sambalpur town alone, 6 are at Bamra and 3 at Jharsuguda where chiefly Sal logs are sawn, and exported to industrial towns in Bihar, Bengal, and Madhya Pradesh. A considerable quantity of timber is also supplied to the Railways.

The district is notable for trade in Kendu leaf. A substantial revenue is earned from this source. About 53 per cent of the total forest revenue is yielded by Kendu leaf alone. A revenue of Rs. 77,75,884 was earned during 1968-69 against Rs. 4[illegible],77,433 earned during 1967-68 from Kendu leaves. A major part of the produce is exported. Bidi-making industry, based on this forest produce, is a flourishing cottage industry. Bidi-making factories concentrate at Sambalpur, and Jharsuguda. There are 11 such factories at Sambalpur, 11 at Jharsuguda and, 2 at Bargarh *.

The forest-based industries and forest exploitation works provide employment to a large number of people. Other benefits the local people derive from forests are that they get timber, firewood, bamboo,and other forest produce free or at concessional rate for domestic consumption.

The principal minor forest produce are gum, Mahua flower, chiranji, myrobalan, sabai-grass, and wax.

System of Management

All the Forest Divisions have working plans of their own according to the prescriptions of which the reserved forests are managed. The main system is the sale to contractors of all or selected forest produce in 'Coupes' or demarcated areas of reserved forest laid down in a carefully worked out scheme or working plan. The coupes are sold outright by auction to the highest bidding contractors and are worked over a number of years called 'rotation'. The coupes are again divided into various types of fellings by which trees are removed or cleared by scientific selection and investigation.

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* Register of Small-Scale Industries (1961)

The Orissa Forest Corporation have also entered into the field of business in forest produce. All the coupes of Belpahar Range in Sambalpur Forest Division and of Badarama Range in Bamra Forest Division have been leased out to this body. In addition, the following coupes have also been leased out to them.

Name of coupes	Name of Range	Name of Forest Division
1. Pravasuni Selection Coupe	Kuchinda	Bamra
2. Brahmani Selection Coupe	Charmal	Rairakhol
3. Terbeda Selection Coupe	Rampur	Rairakhol
4. Balikiari Selection Coupe	Girishchandrapur	Rairakhol
5. Mundher Coppice Coupe	Sambalpur	Sambalpur
6. Hatibari U. W. C. Coupe	Sambalpur	Sambalpur
7. Ghichamura	Rengali	Sambalpur

All the bamboo coupes in Bamra Forest Division have been leased out to Orient Paper Mills for exploitation on long-term basis.

The exploitation of Kendu leaves is regulated under the "Orissa Kendu Leaves (Control of Trade) Act, 1961".

Rights and Concessions

No rights are allowed in reserved forests. However, grazing is allowed, except in some specific areas of these forests, on payment of fee.

In demarcated and undemarcated forests grazing is allowed. Besides, the Nistar-cess paying tenants are allowed to remove unprohibited species from these forests free of royalty for meeting their *bona fide* personal requirements. For removing prohibited species, they are required to pay royalty at concessional rates. *Bona fide* personal requirements include : (*i*) timber for house-building, (*ii*) timber for making agricultural implements, (*iii*) bamboo for house-building and fencing and (*iv*) all kinds of grass.

All varieties of edible fruits and roots, flower, leaves, grass, shrubs, and medicinal herbs are allowed free of payment for domestic consumption.

History of Management

The areas now covered by the present forest divisions of Deogarh and Bamra, and Rairakhol were under the ex-States Bamra and Rairakhol. The old Sambalpur district was having for sometime two forest divisions namely, Sambalpur and Barapahar (now abolished). In the following, brief history of forest management as was prevailing in old Sambalpur district and in those areas is attempted separately.

(*i*) In Sambalpur, forest conservation appears to have been neglected during early years of British administration. In 1866, the Settlement proposed to demarcate and conserve waste lands to which no private person or village community might lay claim. This was done during the settlement operations between 1872 and 1876. In doing so the requirements of local people were also taken into account. In fact, operation of excluding waste lands was confined to hill and jungle tracts which were in nobody's actual possession. These tracts were demarcated separately from village areas and were declared to be the property of Government. The forests were notified as "reserved forest" under the Forest Act in 1878. In selecting these forests, many waste land forests were allowed to form part of Gaontiahi villages, and the large forests in zamindaries were not affected. Until 1887, when a Forest Officer was appointed , the reserved forests were being managed by revenue officers and the inhabitants were allowed to cut and collect in them and to graze their cattle on payment of a fee (known as commutation fee) of 4 annas (now 25 paise) on each plough or roof The appointment of Forest Officer led to the formation of Sambalpur Forest Division, and the introduction of the forest stamp system from 1888 which was a feature of forest management in Central Provinces (now Madhya Pradesh). This replaced the commutation system. According to this new system, respectable inhabitants of conveniently situated villages were appointed forest licence vendors. They supplied applicants with licence to cut and remove such produce as the latter might require on payment at rates specified in an authorised schedule of prices. On each licence they placed forest stamps, purchased from Treasury, of the value of produce covered by the licence. Their remuneration consisted of a commission at 6½ per cent of the amount spent by them on purchasing the stamps. This system was later continued in a modified form. Sale to contractors of all or selected forest produce in coupes was mainly done. Fixed value permit system was introduced in 1920 instead of forest stamp system. According to this system, licence vendors had to buy these permits from Divisional Forest Officer. Villagers could buy these permits which authorised them to remove the forest produce. These permits were used only for a limited number of forest-produce, such as, bamboos, dry wood for firewood, grass, thorns or grazing. Green timber was not sold under these permits, but only in regulated coupes sold to contractors.

No attempt was made to introduce located fellings or regulated grazing till 1898 when the working plan for Barapahar and neighbouring forests was sanctioned. In 1905 it was sought to introduce a better regulation of fellings of all descriptions. But the efforts were greatly hindered by the fact that large number of inhabitants could still obtain all the forest produce they needed from village lands or Zamindar! forests, or that they lived at such distance from the reserves that they could not readily make use of the reserved forests. In 1910, the working plan was revised and owing to disappearance of Zamindari and village forests and the consequent greater demand from the reserve forests, coppice fellings were introduced, while the selection fellings in the forests set apart for export continued. In 1921 the plan was again revised and the increased demand for both fuel and poles for local consumption and for export enabled the new plan to be much more detailed. The forest revenue had risen from Rs. 53,111 in 1905 to Rs. 96,109 in 1920. As the revenue increaseed, the forest division was divided into two from 1928, namely, Barapahar and Sambalpur. The revised working plan (1931—51) for Sambalpur Division was prepared in 1931. The working plan for Barapahar Division was revised in 1942 for a period of 20 years.

There were also Zamindari forests covering 202 square miles which were being managed by Zamindars under Sambalpur Zamindari and Malguzari Forest Rules, 1930. The village forests were the protected forests under the Indian Forest Act, 1878. The Zamindari forests have now been taken over by Government. The Barapahar Forest Division was abolished in 1959 and amalgamated in Sambalpur Forest Division.

(*ii*) In the ex-State of Rairakhol, the forests were first exploited for sleepers when rail lines were laid in Sambalpur in 1893. But no regular lease was given till 1907, when M/s. B. Barua and Co. were given the first sleeper lease. The lease was subsequently transferred to M/s. Bengal Timber Trading Co. The lease continued till 1927. In the same year demarcation was completed in six forest blocks, namely, Landakot, Kholgarh, Hatidhara, Landimal, Rail, and Rahen. The first regular working plan (1942-60) was prepared by Dr. H. F. Mooney.

(*iii*) In the ex-State of Bamra, about 1880 there was timber trade with Jenapur in Cuttack district. The timber was being floated down the river Brahmani. Sleeper operations started in 1888. Sir Basudeb Sudhal Deb, who was then the Raja, did not give contracts to individuals or companies, but did the business himself with the Railways under the name "Rajkumar Sleeper Business". In 1906 a Ranger was first appointed to hold charge of the Forest Department. During the rule of Raja Satchidananda Tribhuvan Deb, the people were required to pay royalty

for the use of reserved trees for house building. From 1920, the ruling chief paid attention to forest improvements and framed forest rules. The State forest rules were published in 1924. The first working plan (1933—43) was prepared in 1933 by G. N. Mathur.

70. Natural Calamities

Former immunity from famine

Until the year 1900 Sambalpur was regarded as practically immune from famine, so much so that it was described in official reports as a "Garden of Eden" and a "Land of Promise". But in spite of former plenty, failure of crops is known to have occurred from time to time involving some distress and scarcity, at least in parts of the district. Early records show that there was such a failure in 1834, when in spite of the prohibition of export, the price of rice rose as high as 8 to 10 seers (7·46 to 9·33 kg.) per rupee. There was again scarcity in 1845, but after the latter year the price of rice remained steady at 54 seers (50·38 kg.) per rupee. Subsequently, owing to unfavourable and deficient rainfall, it rose to the then abnormal figure of 16 seers (14·93 kg.) per rupee both in 1865-66, the year of the great Orissa famine called "Na-Anka" and in 1877-78., when some scarcity followed a meagre harvest. In 1886, there was again a failure of the rice crop in some parts, prices rising to 19 seers (17·72 kg.) to the rupee, and relief works were opened, but failed to attract labour. Through all these years, however, there was no general famine, though there must have been severe distress in the more remote and mere jungly, less closely cultivated and less densely populated parts of the distirict.

Famine of 1897

Even in 1897, when other parts of the country suffered from one of the worst famines of the 19th Century, Sambalpur was scarcely affected. The outturn of the rice crop was fair, being 70 per cent of an average crop, and good prices were obtained. Famine was declared only in a small area of 228 square miles with a population of 63,000 comprised in the Chandarpur and Malkharoda Zamindaris, which were later transferred to the then Central Provinces. In this area famine relief measures had to be undertaken and in Borasambar, where there had been a partial failure of the crops owing to the premature cessation of the monsoon some relief work on roads was started by the estate. Elsewhere it was found sufficient to provide some work on tanks with the help of loans and private subscriptions. How little the distric was affected by this famine may be realised from Mr. Craddock's report on the Famine in the Central Provinces in 1896 and 1897. "In Sambalpur, with a very fair rice crop, large exports and high prices, money poured into the district, and private charity amply sufficed to support the poor whom the high prices affected. A single road work

was opened in April and continued till October, but this was chiefly intended to meet the needs of a corner of the district where the local crops had been poor and immigrants from Bilaspur were numerous. The numbers on this work only reached 2, 200, and rapidly fell as the rains advanced". A further proof of the lightness of the famine is afforded by the fact that "a great many people from Bilaspur wandered over into Sambalpur, the land of plenty".

Famine of 1900

The first real famine, and hitherto the only famine of Sambalpur was that of 1900[1] which showed in a striking manner the dependence of the people on the rice crop and the danger of a premature cessation of the monsoon. In Borasambar alone is there any considerable area under millets, and though the pulses called mung and kulthi are grown all over the district, the area given up to them is comparatively insignificant. There is practically no *rabi* crop, and everything consequently depends on the rice. This failed in 1899-1900 owing to a badly distributed rainfall, and the district was involved in famine in spite of previous years of plenty. The outturn of the rice crop in 1895-96, i. e., of the crop harvested at the end of 1895, had been 70 per cent, and in the preceding three years it had been 88 per cent. In 1896-97 there was bumper crop, the average outturn being 120 per cent, but for other food-grains, viz., pulses, *til* and sugarcane, the outturn was 45, 45 and 60 per cent respectively. In 1897-98 the harvest was almost as good, the outturn of rice being 101 per cent, while there were full crops of *til*, etc., and the other crops were also good. Preceding circumstances could not have been more fortunate, except perhaps in the Borasambar Zamindari where, however, the outturn was little short of a full crop.

On the whole, the rainfall of 1898 was sufficient, seasonable and favourable to agriculture, and the earlier part of the monsoon of 1899 was well up to strength. The rains broke on the third of June 1899 and continued with fair steadiness till the middle of August, the total rainfall up to the 19th August being 38·72 inches at Sambalpur and 30 93 inches at Bargarh. After this, the monsoon current fell off in strength, yielding only light and unsatisfactory showers. But up to the end of the month. there was no apprehension of famine, for some of the crop on the light *at* land had been reaped, and the prospects for the heavier lands were good. Indeed, it was reported at this time that there was no reason to suppose that any relief would be necessary. From the beginning of September, however, it became evident that unless there was heavy rain, the crops would suffer, and distress ensue. The

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1. This account of the famine of 1900 has been compiled from the Deputy Commissioner's Final Famine Report. (Vide Sambalpur District Gazetteer, 1932. by F. C. King—P. 144),

gloomy anticipations were realised. In the first half of September there was a fall of 1·23 inches at Sambalpur and of 1·91 inches at Bargarh and then the rain ceased altogether, giving a total of 45 51 inches in Sambalpur and 37·78 inches in Bargarh. This was not very much below the average for the Sambalpur *tahsil*, which consequently suffered least. In fact, had the earlier rain been more evenly distributed the loss of crops would have been slight, and as it was, tanks were filled early, and there they existed, they saved the crops on the heavy lands in October. The villages in the east and north of the Bargarh plain also were not so seriously affected, getting, as in the Sambalpur *tahsil*, half an average crop, but distress was very severe in the south-west, especially in Borasambar. In the district, as a whole there was a serious failure of the rice crop, the outturn of which was only 30 per cent for transplanted and 45 per cent for broadcast rice, while in Bijepur and Borasambar it was almost an entire failure.

On the 22nd September the first step towards the organization of relief was taken, *Patwaris* throughout the district being ordered, to get village relief lists in readiness. It was not anticipated, however, that there would be a complete failure of crops in any tract and it was therefore assumed that the labour required for the harvest would tide the labouring classes over October and November, so that actual relief operations would not begin until the month of December. This forecast proved to be practically correct, as will be apparent from the following table showing the progress of relief measures throughout the year. Briefly, there were five fairly distinct periods

(1) November and December, when distress was being tested.

(2) The general extension of relief with works and kitchens, which lasted till March, when cholera caused much disorganisation, and when there was also a lightening of distress owin to the incoming of the *mahua* harvest

(3) The hot weather period, when by means of small village works and extended kitchens, relief was effectively organised in the face of cholera.

(4) The fourth period showed a contraction of relief on works and a great extension of kitchen reliet.

(5) The fifth was the period of contraction lasting from the middle of August till the end of October, when the district was practically in the same position as in December, 1899.

Month	No. of kitchens open	No. of relief in kitchens	No. of works open	No. relieved in works	Total No. relieved including village relief	Percentage of population of famine tracts on relief	Population
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
November, 1899	7	500	3	1,000	1,500	0·4	
December, 1899	44	13,000	5	2,000	15,000	4·3	
January, 1900 ..	73	20,000	10	7,500	27,500	7·8	350,000
February, 1900	82	20,000	10	9,000	29,000	8·3	
March, 1900 ..	85	14,500	21	7,000	22,000	6·3	
April, 1900 ..	96	17,000	32	15,000	34,000	8·7	
May, 1900 ..	102	19,000	32	18,000	39,000	10·0	390,000
June, 1900 ..	133	34,000	18	13,000	49,000	12·5	
July, 1900 ..	163	61,000	8	13,000	77,000	19·7	
August, 1900 ..	231	84,000	4	5,500	93,000	21·6	430,000
September, 1900	156	33,000	..	..	36,000	8·4	
October, 1900 ..	73	14,000	..	..	15,000	4·3	550,000
Average ..	104	27,500	12	7,500	36,500	9·7	380,000

Stocks

As stated above, the district was scarcely affected by the famine of 1896-97, but in that year and in the preceding year, owing to the scarcity in other districts and consequent high prices, all the available balance of grain stocks was exported, and the year 1897-98 was started with a much lower reserve than usual. But the crops of that year and of 1898-99 were excellent, and it is estimated that in September, 1899 there was more than sufficient for a year's supply. In Borasambar, however, the food stocks in the hands of *gaontias* and *raiyats* were very small after the beginning of 1900. Little grain was sold at the local markets, and in some tracts the labourers and smaller tenants depended upon supplies brought in by *Cutchi Mahajans*. In Bijepur the majority

of the *gaontias* and many tenants had good stocks, but, being surrounded by a large population of Gandas, they were in constant terror of being robbed, and hid their stocks carefully. It was not till the end of August, when crop prospects were assured, that they brought them out for sale. In the rest of the district, stocks in the hands of cultivators were probably adequate, and those in the hands of the richer men were large.

Prices

Regarding the course of prices, the Deputy Commissioner wrote as follows in his final report on the famine : "Sambalpur has been accustomed to have its staple food very cheap. The normal rate of rice in Sambalpur is about 17 seers (15·87 Kg.), but at Bargarh it is 20 seers (18·66 Kg.), falling at harvest time so low as 22 and 24 seers (20·52 and 22·39 Kg.) and in other less central parts of the district the prices are of course still lower. Small broken rice, cleaned off from the finer qualities, is to be had at 30 seers (28 Kg.), and it is on this that many of the lowest class habitually live. It is then the less surprising that distress should have been acute in a formerly prosperous district, which even yet had large grain stocks locked up in the hands of its well-to-do residents, when prices ranged in out of the way tracts from the normal 24 seers (22·39 Kg.) to 6 seers (5·60 Kg.) and even to 5 seers (4·66 Kg.) per rupee. In contrast with the ordinary usage the more remote parts, where rice is usually cheapest, had the highest prices. They were farther from the stocks. Locally, *gaontias* and *raiyats* who possessed stocks would not sell. Many could have parted with half their hoard quite safely and at a very high price. That they did not do so is due to two facts. They were afraid, by open selling, of drawing attention to the fact that they possessed stocks which could be looted And again, so panic-stricken were the people by the failure of the 1899 crops, a disaster for which they had no precedent that they kept in store all that they could in view of a second possible. failure. So strong was the belief that the crop of 1900 would also be a failure, that it was in some tracts difficult to get tenants to take *taccavi* loans for seed grain. They said that it would be lost and themselves burdened with the debt.

"Borasambar was the most remote tract and therefore in an ordinary year, the place of cheapest rice. This year (1900) in January, when in Sambalpur and Bargarh the price was 11 seers (10·26 Kg.), it was 9½ seers (8·86 Kg.), in Borasambar. By the end of February prices had risen there to 8½ seers (7·93 Kg.), when in other parts they were 10 and 11 seers (9·33 Kg. and 10·26 Kg.). By June when 10 seers (9·33 Kg.) was ruling in Sambalpur, and 9½ seers (8·86 Kg.) at Bargarh, the Borasambar price rose to 7½ (7 Kg.), and again to 6½ seers (6 Kg.), which rate ruled steadily throughout July and August. From January to August, 1900 the average prices were

9 seers (8·40 Kg.) in Sambalpur town, Bargarh and Bijepur, and 7½ seers in Borasambar There was in all parts a gradual rise up to the month of August, and prices seem to have risen much higher than in either Raipur or Bilaspur, where 9 seers was considered a high rate.

"It was not until the end of August that the tension was relieved. By that time it was clear that the chances were in favour of a good harvest. Prices fell at headquarters from 8¾ to 11½ seers (8·16 to 10·73 Kg.) and at Bargarh from 8½ to 9½ seers (7·93 to 8·86 Kg). In Borasambar, owing to the harvesting of an early millet, prices fell at the same date from 6 to 8 seers. After that there was some hesitation at Sambalpur itself, but in the district the fall was steady. At Bargarh prices went from 9½ to 11 seers (8·86 Kg. to 10·26 Kg.), from 11 to 13 seers (10·26 Kg. to 12·13 Kg.). By the middle of October when harvesting had generally well begun, prices fell nearly to the normal, which, by the end of October they attained.

"The course of prices seriously affected at sowing time even such cultivators as were not in need of relief. Ordinarily, about Bargarh. *dhan* seed grain sells at 2 *Khandis* (40 *tambis* or 50 seers) per rupee. This year in Borasambar and Bijepur its prices was 15 *tambis* (about 18 seers). Large numbers of tenants, getting their *taccavi* early, went into the Bargarh Khalsa and bought their seed grain there. Nothing could better prove the depletion of food stocks in Borasambar. By December a harvest had been got in which probably represented at least 3,000,000 maunds (1,119,600 quintals) of rice, but in the famine tracts the crop was little more than sufficient to furnish seed grain for the next sowing. The stocks which did exist, however, were held back both by *gaontias*, *raiyats* and dealers by the former two classes in view of what they considered a probably second failure of crops, and by the latter, partly for the same reason, and partly to be sure of getting the highest possible price for their grain."

Relief works

Relief on works was mainly afforded not in the camps of the Public Works Department, which were never largely attended, by works of considerable size managed by civil agency on the intermediate system, and by small village works managed by piece-work through the agency of *gaontias*. This policy was rendered the more necessary by the continual presence of cholera for four months, but in any case it was found to be difficult or impossible to tempt the people, especially the aboriginals of Borasambar, to any distance from their homes in order to obtain relief on large works. They were not educated in famine operations, and people in need of relief and capable of working were most reluctant to come to the works. Gradually they gained confidence, but

in most March and April the extension of relief works was rendered most difficult by continual outbreaks of cholera and wholesale stampedes. These panics were frequently repeated throughout the year, though on a smaller scale and for much less cause. The result was that the aboriginals greatly preferred labour on *malguzari* works near their homes, although they got much lower wages and did much more work-double the work, indeed, for these wages. But they were more familiar with the small tank-works run on their accustomed system of piece-work. In Bijepur again, the Gandas, who were most in need of relief, either thieved rather than take to honest work, or proceeded to qualify themselves for kitchen relief by remaining idle and in want of food until they were emaciated. Even when they came to the works, their outturn was conspicuously low and their manifold complaints conspicuously loud. The total number of units relieved by civil agency and *malguzari* works was 1,899,657 and by Public Works Department works 601,485.

Kitchens

A reference to the previous table will show the rate at which kitchens were opened. The food given was cooked rice and *dal*, according to the prescribed scale of rations, but some deviations from rule were found to be necessary. The people on relief were accustomed to the plainest possible fare, and though even the moderate allowance of *dal* that was served out was a luxury to them, it was not fully appreciated at first. They would not eat *kedgcree* (Khichri) or rice and *dal* cooked together, for it was to them an unaccustomed dish. From the start, rice *bhat* had to be cooked separately, and this they ate first, reserving the *dal* pottage as a tit-bit to be sucked up slowly afterwards. Even plain *bhat* was objected to in the hot weather, because the people were accustomed to a dish called *Pakhal* i. e., rice which has been parboiled and then steeped in a large quantity of cold water. So in the hot weather a half ration of *bhat* with the allowance of *dal* was served hot in the early morning, and in the evening the remaining half ration was given cold in the form of *Pakhal*.

There was a great deal of difficulty at first in inducing people especially aboriginals, to accept cooked food. They were afraid to take help which, they imagined, would have to be paid for later in some way, and they were afraid of losing caste. This objection was gradually overcome. Care was taken to appoint as cooks only Brahmins of the highest of the three Oriya classes, and as waterman only Gours. This met most objections, but the Binjhals at first insisted that they could not eat from the hands of any Brahman. They were then given a cook of their own caste, but later this was admitted to be unnecessary. The highest attendance at kitchens was 84,000 on the 18th August. Altogether 9,780,291 units were relieved at a cost of Rs. 4,00,923-6-2 in food alone.

Mortality

The mortality during the famine was exceptionally high, 74,170 deaths being recorded from the 1st October 1899 to the 30th September 1900, i.e., a death-rate of 93 per mille per annum on the last census population of 796,000. But there is some doubt about the figures, for the weekly returns showed only 62,924 deaths, i. e., a death-rate of 79 per mille. A severe epidemic of cholera and smallpox accounted for 10,810 and 1,398 deaths respectively, and excluding the latter the rate is either 70·7 or 63·7 per mille. Even this, however, is unduly high, and the causes of the apparent divergence from a normal death-rate appear to be as follows: Firstly, the census figure of 796,000, as taken in 1891, did not represent the population of the district at the time of the famine, for there was a large increase due to immigration, which was greatest in the zamindaris constituting the famine tracts. The second cause lay in the migration of wanderers, among whom mortality was very high. They had come long distances and were almost always in a most reduced state, some being mere skeletons. They had no houses to go to, little or no shelter was available, and they were exposed to unusually wet and chilly weather. The third cause may be found in the unusual unhealthiness of climatic conditions. The rainfall was a record one, and it came in bursts, so that the weather alternated between extreme heat and considerable cold. A form of recurrent fever consequently broke out in what was practically epidemic form, accounting for 19,976 deaths out of the total of 74,107, i. e., 27 per cent. It was no respector of persons, all officials suffered from it, and this seriously hampered relief work in August and September.

Attitude of the People

It was difficult, in the face of long previous prosperity, to believe that distress in Sambalpur would be real. It was real, and the explanation is that the appearance of prosperity is somewhat deceptive, for it is confined to cert in rich parts of the district and to the higher classes. The standard of comfort moreover is low, a large proportion of the population consisting of aboriginals, and aboriginals do not save. Distress was consequently acute, and one striking illustration of its reality is that the merchants bought up at low prices thousands of brass *lotas* and *ginas*, two cart-loads of which were at one time being ferried over the *Mahanadi* to Sambalpur daily. Another illustration will be found in the figures of export and import, for Sambalpur exported foolishly, and had to re-import inferior rice in equal quantities later in the year.

When famine did come, the former immunity was a hindrance to relief, the cheapness and profusion of former years having unfitted the people to contend with scarcity. On the one hand, the village officials and those that were too well-to-do to be seriously affected gave no help

to relief operations, indeed, a stubborn opposition was frequently raised by those who ought to have helped, and who probably would have helped if they had previous experience of famine. On the other hand, the poorer classes who needed relief were uneducated in famine programmes, and had to be encouraged and instructed before they were able or willing to accept the relief open to them. This was especially the case in Bijepur and Borasambar. In the former charge the lower classes consist largely of Gandas, and the Ganda is by nature and habit a thief, and, failing that, a beggar. They were willing enough to avail themselves of the kitchens both for themselves and for their children, but they would not, if it could be avoided, attend a relief work. Their prejudices are againt work, and when turned out of kitchens as able-bodied, they took to thieving.

In Borasambar, the majority of the people were aboriginals, Binjhals, Gonds and Khonds, and the difficulty of dealing effictively with them may be gathered from the previous account. In spite of the discomfort of the rains, the heavy tasks and rigorous fines, large numbers preferred relief on works to the alternative of gratuitous relief of any kind, and, in particular, of kitchen relief. The Binjhals were especially reluctant to come to the kitchens at the beginning of relief operations, chiefly because they were convinced that they would either be deported to Assam or somehow made to pay for the relief later by services being exacted from them.

In the case of village *Chaukidars*, the giving of village relief was understood, for they were Government servants But with the rest of the people there was always an uncomfortable impression, which could not be eradicated, that the acceptance of money-doles would pledge them to some kind of future service. Generally speaking, the attitude of the people towards relief measures was one of the extreme shyness, except among the Bijepur Gandas, who were shy of work only.

General Conditions

In conclusion, the following remarks of the Settlement Officer. Mr. F. DeWar, may be quoted as showing the economic revolution due to the introduction of the railway and the way in which it affected the people during this famine. After explaining that formerly the district was a land-locked home of cheapness, and that rice stayed in the district because it could not get out, he writes *—"Circumstances were altered by the completion of the main Bengal-Nagpur Railway line in 1890 and of the branch line to Sambalpur in 1894. The price of rice at once began to rise towards its level in outside districts. For many years the opening of the country brought with it nothing but progress and increased prosperity. There were fair or good harvests, the small cultivator stored grain or sold it at high rates. the labourer found work and

* Sambalpur District Gazetteer (1932) by F. C. King.

was paid in grain. The large land-owners and tenants made big profits and were able to build tanks, extend their cultivation, and still save.

"But it was another matter when in 1899 the rice crop failed over all the western and south-western parts of the district. The smaller cultivators had lost all their crop even in villages where the richer men, using the irrigation tanks, saved half a harvest. The small cultivator soon had to buy. The farm hand thrown out of employment, the day-labourer and the artisan, had to buy. But a price of 16 seers, (14·92 Kgs.) formerly considered a scarcity price, had now become the normal rate. and when that rose to 12 or 10 seers, (11·20 or 9·33 Kgs.) famine condition were well established. Meanwhile, the richer men, attracted by the previously unequailed price, had sold for export much too early, and most of the surplus grain had left the district. Later, even in the stricken tracts, there were still large stocks, their first mistake and remem_bering also that in the past bad seasons had run in pairs, held back and lost their second opportunity.

"The climax was reached in August 1900, when no faith could be put in the coming harvest, because weather conditions seemed to threaten a second failure. Matters were at their worst in the remote western zamindaris. Here, only fifteen years before, a normal price after an ordinary harvest had been 70 to 80 seers (65·31 to 74·64 Kgs.). It went to 6 seers in August 1900. Rice had been rushed out on the railway in October, November, December and January. Ten for then an exactly equal amount had from April to August to be railed and carted back, inferior grain at a double price. The financial loss fell upon the labouring classes, on the small cultivators, who were chiefly aboriginals, and on Government. The rich cultivators missed most of the profit which they might have made had they understood the new conditions that the railway had brought with it. The only gainers were a dozen traders, the railway company, and the agents who exported labour to Assam.

"One most note-worthy feature of famine work in the latter months was the difficulty of redistributing grain throughout the district to tracts where local supplies were exhausted or were being held back. To drain the rice out of the district had been easy. It had been brought to trading centres in headloads over village paths. It could not be redistributed in the same way, partly because private trade was paralysed, and partly because the people who carried it were, when it came back, in famine-kitchens or on works. Even had they been available, they could not have bought it, and they could no longer have been trusted as hired carriers. It had to be carted over a district which had but few cart roads. After the rains broke in June, even the main road to Raipur was frequently

blocked by recurrent floods and the village tracts were impassable. The best of rice does not travel well in rainy weather on open carts, and much of the reimported grain fermented and became unfit for consumption.

"That short rainfalls will again occur and produce crop failures in at least the western half of the district is quite certain. It may be confidently hoped that, in future, the richer agriculturists will understand better the altered range of prices, and will benefit both themselves and the district by holding back stocks for local sale. It is also to be hoped that there will not again be a large influx of starving wanderers from the States and from other British districts. But in any case road-improvement is a necessity and it would be advisable also to extend the railway so that it will be able to feed the district as well as to drain it".

There has been no famine in the district since the above account was written. Communications have been much improved during the past 20 years and trade has become much brisker. One effect of increased trade is that the level of prices in Sambalpur has tended to an equality with the prices in more advanced districts of the province. The increase in agricultural prices has brought prosperity to the *gaontia* and well-to-do cultivator class but it has effected little appreciable improvement in the standard of the labouring class. Though the working class are little better off now than they were twenty years ago, there is, nevertheless, reason to belive that their immunity from famine is considerably greater. The improvement in communication has now reached such a stage that it should be almost as easy to pour rice into the country as to drain it out. Good roads radiates in all directions, trade connections have been established in all parts of the district, motor lorries ply north, south, east and west. In these circumstances, it is permissible to hope that the export facilities which have given Sambalpur high prices for her produce, would act as efficiently to replenish her stocks in time of need as they do to distribute them in times of plenty.

There has been no other calamity in the history of Sambalpur commensurate with the famine of 1900. The district is not subject to disastrous flooding, though minor floods, have at times, occurred along with the banks of the Ib and the Mahanadi. Epidemics, too, have taken their toll from the population but, excepting the widespread and devastating influenza epidemic of 1918, other sporadic outbreaks of disease, though they have been responsible for much private loss and sorrow, have not attained the dimensions of public calamities. The district is free from plague.

Scarcity of 1941

The district was again in the grips of scarcity in 1941-42, though there was no official declaration of either famine or scarcity. The rains ceased towards the end of September, 1941. This, coupled with a certain failure of crops in the previous year, aggravated the situation. The

Government apprehended a crisis and advanced liberal loans to the extent of Rs. 32,875. Irrigation received a fresh emphasis. The *Mal* paddy alone was badly damaged. The *Bahal* paddy, on the whole, remaind secure. Scarcity was acute in the Paikmal and Jagdalpur areas. Prices of food-grains shot up due to scarcity. The war was also a contributing factor for price rise. The absence of rains from September onwards badly damaged the *Kharif* crop. So the winter of 1941 was very unproductive. As a relief measure, farmers had to be engaged in public works.

After 1942, there has been no major natural calamity, though periodical food shortages have been there. In the subsequent years droughts appeared, but they were not widespread nor protracted.

Drought of 1954

Drought occurred in 1954. The rainfall in that year was only 48·13 inches, yet the average fall during the period May-September was better particularly during the months July-September. Certain pockets, how ever, suffered due to freakish rainfall. Nearly 88 Grama Panchayats were either partly or fully affected involving a population of nearly 330,000 and an area of about 88,560 acres (35,867 hectares), the average outturn being about 50 per cent to 60 per cent and in certain pockets about 40 per cent to 50 per cent.

Drought of 1965

The drought that befell the district in 1965 was more or less comparable, for its severity, with the famine of 1900. The rainfall was even worse in 1965. During the monsoon of 1899, the average rainfall up to early September in Sambalpur subdivision was 45·51 inches and in Bargarh subdivision 37·78 inches. In 1965, the average rainfall of the district has never been more than 30·35 inches. As in 1900, Padampur Tahsil with a population of 275,172 ranked again with the worst-hit areas during the present drought. The areas irrigated by Hirakud canals were, however, immune from the calamity.

Out of a total population of 1,508,686 of the district, 943,177 people were affected. Towards the end of October 1965 when all hopes for monsoon rains were lost and failure of crops seemed imminent, a number of people belonging to Sohela, Jharbandh and Paikmal Community Development Blocks, who depended on agriculture, began deserting their villages to better off areas in search of employment. Number of people belonging to other affected Community Development Blocks like Bijepur, Bhatli, Gaisilat, etc., also went to irrigated areas to find employment in agricultural operations. A reversal of this trend was,howev er, noticed towards the end of January 1966, when labour intensive works were taken up in those areas. People began to return to their native places. In

the village Firingimal (in Gaisilat Community Development Block) alone. 50 families left their homes, some for the irrigated areas of Balangir district and some for similar areas in Sambalpur district. Their houses remained locked up. In the same village, a number of people told the Collector that they had sold off their cattle, carts, utensils and other movable belongings. Reports of the selling of household articles like brass utensils etc., had been forthcoming since November 1965. Serious difficulties were also felt in the matter of drinking water. In villages, major portion of the population depended on tanks for drinking water. Due to scanty rainfall, these tanks could not be filled up to their normal levels, and started drying up soon. Again as rains failed, tanks were excessively used for irrigation during Khariff season. As a result, they became empty. The cattle population also suffered considerably for water scarcity. Cattle troughs were constructed in villages where cattle population was preponderant.

For taking up labour intensive works in order to provide employment to the distressed people, a special grant of Rs. 3,36,645 was released and a little over Rs. 6 lakhs was also diverted from the budgets of Community Development Blocks. With the same end in view, a little over Rs. 5 lakhs was allotted for improvement of roads in Community Development Block areas.

STATEMENT I

List of Minor Irrigation Projects in Sambalpur district

(A) Completed Projects

Name of Block	Name of Minor Irrigation Projects	Date of construction	Cost	Area irrigated (in acres)
1	2	3	4	5
			Rs.	
Sambalpur Sadar I ..	1. Chaurpur	1964	7,458	24·45
	2. Lamal Kata I & II	1964	16,761	90·00
	3. Jharghati	1966-67	53,370	107·75
Rengali ..	4. Jharanpali Kata I	1963-64	30,260	78·31
	5. Jharanpali Kata II	1965-66	52,850	39·52
	6. Katarbaga	1964	95,349	183·72
	7. Salad Kata	1964	58,757	69·18
	8. Kasipali	..	21,405	59·38
	9. Mangalpur	..	14,596	45·97
	10. Kurla ..	1965	2,297	9·50
	11. Sapnei	1965-66	32,483	9·29
	12. Rampella Munda	..	8,215	12·56
	13. Salad Munda	..	16,192	9·84
Laikera I ..	14. Orsgarh	..	10,087	45·76
	15. Saletikra	1963-64	14,338	37·36
Laikera II ..	16. Aghariabagdihi	1964-65	18,643	63·49
	17. Handatopa	1964	9,869	27·36
	18. Medinipur	1964	22,368	42·97
	19. Tumbadihi	1964	27,600	57·70
	20. Arda	1964-65	32,708	113·31
	21. Chandrapur	..	7,999	24·75
	22. Sialrama	1964—66	22,503	150·00
Laikera III ..	23. Raghunathpali	1964—66	32,850	80·26
	24. Bhadimal	..	..	84·84
	25. Kundurusingha	..	36,278	31·60

Name of Block	Name of Minor Irrigation Projects	Date of construction	Cost	Area irrigated (in acres)
1	2	3	4	5
			Rs.	
Lakhanpus ..	26. Banjari ..	1963	..	280·52
	27. Bargad Kata ..	..	..	62·43
	28. Attabira ..	1964-65	32,462	190·83
	29. Kusraloikata No. 2 ..	1966-67	29,589	50·00
	30. Kusraloikata No. 3 ..	..	..	127·24
	31. Kusraloikata No. 4 ..	1966	39,816	50·00
Jharsuguda ..	32. Beherapat ..	1966	53,202	22·97
	33. H. Katapali ..	1966	16,765	74·39
	34. Jharianal ..	1964	19,866	48·05
	35. Katikela ..	1966	43,736	82·93
	36. Sripura ..	1964	32,969	96·15
Kuchinda ..	37. Kuntrakata ..	1964	4,269	123·53
	38. Kusumi Kata ..	..	4,544	83·44
	39. Perpetta ..	1964	2,86,122	1,763·78
Jamunkira ..	40. Jamunkira ..	1963-64	99,977	562·43
	41. Sanbhaluchuan ..	1966	39,641	66·59
Gobindpur ..	42. Gobindpur ..	..	22,443	33·85
Barakot .	43. Bamparada ..	1964	9,724	111·23
Naikul ..	44. Goudsuguda ..	1966-67	44,587	401·37
Riamal ..	45. Barghat ..	1964	30,075	315·71
	46. Kansar ..	1964	18,410	156·61
	47. Kankarkhol ..	1966	53,256	82·28
	48. Niktimal ..	1964	37,327	525·40
	49. Tarang ..	..	9,544	43·17
	50. Gundiapali ..	1963-64	32,288	44·84
Paikmal ..	51. Narsinghanath ..	1963-64	2,11,950	508·41
	52. Rasamunda ..	1963-64	3,38,000	625·46

Name of Block	Name of Minor Irrigation Projects	Date of construction	Cost	Area Irrigated (In acres)
1	2	3	4	5
			Rs.	
Padampur ..	53. Dudkamunda ..	1963-64	29,300	199·53
Bhatli ..	54. Kamgaon ..	1965-66	28,060	41·44
Ambabhona ..	55. Dwari ..	1963-64	18,800	653·45
Gaisilat ..	56. Turchha ..	1964-65	32,000	61·85
Sambalpur Sadar II.	57. Sangramal Kata-5 ..	1964-65	1,00,000	252·72
Sambalpur Sadar III.	58. Ghenupali ..	1963-64	14,700	83·85
	59. Litimunda ..	1963-64	6.930	111·47
	60. Badsahirkata-4 ..	1963-64	7,960	34·03
	61. Hatibari ..	1963-64	27,500	39·03
	62. Kayakud ..	1963-64	4,34,506	1,213·08
Rairakhol ..	63. Kuhi ..	1965-66	15,750	53·52
Naktideul ..	64. Jharbeda ..	1965-66	69,600	120·50
	Total ..	..	..	9,756·85

(B) Projects under execution

Name of Block	Sl. No.	Name of M. I. P.		Est. cost	Date of construction	Designed ayacut		Present irrigation		Remarks
						Khariff	Rabi	Khariff	Rabi	
1	2	3		4	5	6	7	8	9	10
				Rs. P.						
BARGARH CIVIL SUBDIVISION										
Bargarh	— 1	Kotna Kata	—	39,000·00	1963-64	80	..	18·62	—	
Paikmal	— 2	Gupteswar	—	1,20,400·00	1966-67	250	100	200·13	50	
	3	Sarakarikata	—	1,18,900·00	1965-66	170	...	100·20	—	
	4	Dhandupali	—	65,600·00	1966-67	120	...	36·77	—	
	5	Bhoisagar	—	2,44,000·00	1966-67	450	...	36·07	—	
	6	Dudkijharia	—	2,06,100·00	1966-67	250	...	76·05	—	
Padampur	— 7	Nuapali	—	2,07,800·00	1966-67	230	...	15·96	—	
	8	Khadkhadia	...	1,83,600·00	1963-64	780	...	200·64	...	
Sohela	— 9	Victoriasagar	..	3,33,100·00	1966-67	1,000	350	618·34	..	
	10	Kelenda	..	1,11,200·00	1966-67	400	...	..	..	
Ambabhona	— 11	Lakhanpur	...	88,000·00	1966-67	122	38	..	...	
	12	Ruchida	..	78,000·00	1963-64	156	...	156·50	..	

Name of Block	Sl. No.	Name of M. I. P.	Est. cost	Date of construction	Designed ayacut		Present irrigation		Remarks
					Khariff	Rabi	Khariff	Rabi	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
			Rs. P.						
Attabira	13	Kadobahal	48,150·00	1964-65	125	–	154·27	–	
	14	Ghanghati	3,17,900·00	1967-68	450	120	..	..	
Gaisilat	15	Sardhapali	37,800·00	1963-64	110	..	113·27	..	
Bijepur	16	Bijepur	88,000·00	1963-64	210	..	203·56	..	
	17	Keutipali	35,500·00	1963-64	68	..	78·32	..	
SAMBALPUR									
Sadar II	18	Sangramal-4	2,36,800·00	1963-64	430	–	366·71	–	

Sadar III	19	Badsahir 5	8,960·00	1966-67	24	..	38·03	..
	20	Badsahir 6	24,69,710·00	1966-67	13	7	130·70	10
	21	Galchira	1,43,450·00	1966-67	95	25	2,543·09	..
	22	Hafudera	1,67,000·00	1966-67	550	100	508·26	75
Rairakhol	23	Baishnabjholi	80,900·00	1965-66	194	40	..	..
	24	Helei	72,880·00	1965-66	96	–	91·31	..
	25	Barbank	38,000·00	1963-64	100	..	83·88	..
Naktideul	26	Girischandrapur	4,46,000·00	1968-69	2,860	..	613·10	..
		Total	35,87,340·00		9,451	780	3,838·59	135

STATEMENT II

Area, Production and Yield Rate of different crops for the Agricultural Year 1968-69

Crop		Area in hectares	Production in metric tons	Yield in quintals per hectare
1		2	3	4
1. Paddy	...	526,153	473,343	9
2. Wheat	...	2,927	5,512	18·83
3. Maize	...	811	963	11·87
4. Ragi	...	836	649	7·76
5. Jowar	...	145	286	19·72
6. Bazra	...	67	105	15·67
7. Other small millets	...	10,098	4,143	4·10
Total Cereals	...	541,037	485,001	8·96
8. Gram	...	411	480	11·68
9. Tur (Arhar)	...	969	607	6·26
10. Mung	...	15,081	9,542	6·33
11. Biri	...	7,033	3,947	6·61
12. Kulthi	...	4,741	2,863	6·04
13. Other pulses	...	3,294	1,952	6·59
Total Pulses	...	31,529	19,391	6·15
14. Groundnut	...	18,853	16,700	8·86
15. Til	...	6,212	2,950	4·75
16. Castor	...	690	467	6·77
17. Mustard	...	1,320	578	4·38
Total Oilseeds	...	27,075	20,695	7·64
18. Potato	...	1,640	14,393	87·76
19. Sweet Potato	...	2,094	14,385	68·70
20. Other vegetables	...	16,658	—	—
Total Vegetables	...	22,461	—	—

STATEMENT II—*concld.*

Crop	Area in hectares	Production in metric tons	Yield in quintals per hectare
1	2	3	4
22. Mango ..	3,858	74,104	192·08
23. Banana ..	366	3,084	84·25
24. Citrus fruits ...	123	775	63·00
25. Papaya ..	47	940	200·00
26. Cashewnut —	47	42	9·04
27. Other fresh fruits ...	1,383	..	..
28. Other dry fruits ..	234	—	..
Total Fruits ...	6,058	..	..
29. Chillies (Dry) ..	2,190	1,319	6·02
30. Ginger (Dry) ..	10	6	6·00
31. Turmeric ..	48	126	26·25
32. Garlic ..	283	1,071	37·84
Total Condiments and Spieces ..	2,531	2,522	9.96
33. Tobacco ...	422	238	5·64
34. Sugarcane ..	3,149	19,132	6·08
Fibre Crops			
35. Jute ...	92	513	5·58
36. Cotton ..	24	33	1·38
37. Mesta ..	2,104	12,063	5·73
38. Sunhemp ..	736	1,816	2·47
Total fibre-crops ..	2,956	14,425	4·88

(Production and yield figures of fibro crops are in bales. 1 bale=180 Kg.)
Source—Chief Statistician, Directorate of Agriculture)

STATEMENT III

List of Veterinary Hospital/Dispensaries and Stockmen Centres

Dispensaries/Hospitals

1. Arda
2. Attabira
3. Bargarh (Hospital)
4. Barakot
5. Barpali
6. Bhatli
7. Bheran (Bheden)
8. Bhojpur
9. Bijepur
10. Burla
11. Deogarh
12. Dhama
13. Gaisilat
14. Gogwa
15. Gobindpur
16. Jamunkira (Jamankira)
17. Jharbandh
18. Jharsuguda
19. Jujomura
20. Kadobahal
21. Kolabira
22. Kuchinda
23. Laikera
24. Lakhanpur
25. Naktideul
26. Padampur
27. Paikmal
28. Prakaspur
29. Rairakhol
30. Rengali
31. Riamal
32. Sambalpur (Hospital)
33. Sohela

Stockman Centres

1. Adgaon
2. Babuchipidihi
3. Badmal
4. Badsahir
5. Bagdihi
6. Bargan
7. Batemura
8. Brajarajnagar
9. Buden
10. Budhapal
11. Charaigaon (Chadeigan)
12. Chakarkend
13. Charmal
14. Charpali

15. Chaurpur
16. Dahigaon
17. Dava
18. Dhubenbud
19. Doincha
20. Fasimal
21. Gandturum
22. Garpos
23. Girischandrapur
24. Gourpali
25. Gunduruchuan
26. Hatibari
27. Jagdalpur
28. Jamseth
29. Jhalliminda
30. Jhirlapali
31. Kadaligarh
32. Kadamdihi
33. Kanheipali
34. Kansai
35. Katabahal
36. Katarbaga
37. Kesaibahal
38. Kesapali
39. Khandol
40. Khandom
41. Khinda
42. Kirmira
43. Kordola
44. Kichipali
45. Kumarbandh
46. Kumbho
47. Kundakhai
48. Kusumi
49. Kuturachuan
50. Laira (Laida)
51. Laimura
52. Lakhanpur
53. Lakhmara
54. Laumunda
55. Loharchatti
56. Manesar
57. Naikul
58. Paharsirgida
59. Pakelpada
60. Palsada
61. Panimura
62. Parmanpur (Patrapali)
63. Parmanpur (Sason)
64. Paravadi
65. Rajpur
66. Remenda
67. Rengali
68. Resam
69. Rusra (Rusuda)
70. Sahaspur
71. Saipali
72. Saletikra
73. Samda
74. Sargibahal
75. Sason
76. Sripura
77. Talpatia
78. Urduna

CHAPTER V

INDUSTRIES

71. Old Time Industries

Agriculture has been the principal industry of the district from remote past, as it is today. Other main industries in the past were weaving of cotton and tusser cloth and manufacture of bell-metal utensils. The industries of the district were small establishments run by manual labour of village artisans and met the simple needs of the villagers. With the exception of silk and fancy cotton fabrics, few of the manufactured articles were exported. Brief accounts of the principal industries which then existed, are given below.

(*i*) Silk Weaving

Tusser silk weaving was for many years a principal industry of the district. Dr. Shortt who visited Sambalpur in 1855 found that tusser silk was manufactured to a great extent, the fabrics being used locally and also exported. In 1864 the Deputy Commissioner, Major Cumberleage reported that five large villages or towns were occupied in weaving tusser, and in each, at the very lowest computation, 1,000 thans or pieces were produced annually. The culture of the tusser silkworm was carried on in almost every jungle village and at least 7½ million cocoons were produced. Only one-third of the cloth remained in the district the rest being exported to Cuttack and Berhampur, and also to Raipur and Bilaspur; and it is clear that the industry was then in a flourishing condition. Again in 1876 it was reported that Sambalpur was more advanced than other districts of the Central Province (now Madhya Pradesh) both in the quality of the cocoons exported and in the workmanship of the cloth produced by its weavers. The export of manufactured tusser had apparently fallen off, but half of the cocoons produced were sent out to Ganjam, Cuttack, Raipur, and Bilaspur.

Since that time the industry declined still further, the local supply of tusser cocoons having decreased in quantity, degenerated in quality, and risen in price. The closer conservation of Government forest, the clearing of village forests which were most convenient to the rearers, unfavourable seasons, and lack of care and capital on the part of the breeders are all said to have contributed to this result. For the rearing of tusser worms differs widely from the rearing of the ordinary silk worm, in that the latter is a domesticated insect, whereas the tusser worm thrives best when in the jungle. Not being able to have access to forests, the rearers have not renewed their stock of cocoons from wild seed. Consequently, deterioration

has set in, diseases such as grasserie have become common and the cocoons do not contain as much silk as formerly. Even as long ago as 1892, the rearing of the tusser worm in Government and *malguzari* forests had practically ceased. It was then reported that the cocoon rearers had migrated to the Feudatory States, where, although taxed, they were at least given strips of forest, and that the weavers drew their supplies of cocoons only from those States and from the Zamindaris. This was exactly the condition of affairs which then existed, except that the weavers had to go further afield for their supply, and obtain most of the cocoons from Singhbhum and Baudh State.

The rearing of the tusser worm (locally called *Kosa*) was carried on by Gandas, chiefly on the *Sahaj* tree (*Terminalia tomentosa*). Spinning and weaving were a monopoly of the Koshtas, the centres of the industry being Sambalpur, Remenda and Barpali. The industry was carried on almost entirely with cocoons imported from outside the district. The rearing of tusser cocoons is almost extinct as an industry in Sambalpur. The Koshtas were extremely conservative in their methods and the silk industry of the district suffered set backs owing to the necessity of importing cocoons and the failure of the weavers, to adopt more up-to-date methods.

(*ii*) Iron Work

Iron-ore was found in the hilly country on the borders of the district, particularly in the Borasambar, Kolabira, Laira, Paharsirgira and Rampur ex-Zamindaris, and in the Barapahar hills. Some of them were of good quality, the one east of the Mahanadi especially in Laira, being said to be superior to those of the Bargarh subdivision. King's Gazetteer of 1932 says "the following description given by Dr. Shortt still holds good, no change of any kind having been effected". "In the process for obtaining iron from the stone, no flux is used; it is smelted by means of charcoal. The furnance stands about 4 feet in height and the width inside is 1 foot. Three men are employed at each furnace, two to work the bellows and one as feeder. The furnace is closed at the botton, the fire being maintained by an artificial blast introduced through a fireclay pipe, which is closed with clay after the introduction of the bellows, whose tubes are made of bamboos, which play into the fire-pipe. The materials consist of charcoal and ironstone; and the latter is broken in to pieces, and put together with the charcoal, into the furnace, which is constantly being supplied from the top. On another side a hole is made in the ground connected with an opening at the bottom of the furnace, through which the slag escapes and is from time to time removed, leaving the metal below".

These furnaces are now nowhere to be seen But dumps of slag in different villages weathered through decades prove one time smelting of iron-ore.

Iron smelting and the manufacture of iron articles were a monopoly of the Lohars (from *Loha* which means iron), who numbered 6,697 at the 1931 census. They were found chiefly in the ex-Zamindari villages, more especially in Borasambar, Laira, Paharsirgira, and Rampur, near forests which they could cut freely for charcoal. There were about 29 furnaces at work, and the iron produced was used for the manufacture of agricultural implements, such as plough shares cart-wheel tyres, however, were imported; and when old, were cut up into lengths of about 2 feet each, which were converted in to plough-shares. A few smiths were still able to manufacture, in fairly tempered metal, the finely curved hachet which was once the battle-axe of this country. But owing to the faultiness of the surface-ore extracted and to the primitive methods of smelting, the implements usually made were apt to be soft and brittle. During about 1911, iron boiling pans for sugar-cane were manufactured, but they were found to flake readily on the fire, and their manufacture had been discontinued. The articles most commonly made were the *Kuri* or hoe and the spoons and strainers used in cooking rice, while in villages where the Lohar was still a public servant he made axle-pins and the coulters of ploughs.

The special study carried out during 1961 by the Census Organisation on iron-smelting in Penthabahal village (Rairakhol subdivision), states--"The Konds were the first to discover the occurrence of iron-ore in the locality and started extracting iron for some years till they migrated from the village for better living conditions elsewhere. The village lay uninhabited for some time, but ultimately when the new settlers came, there were some skilful and enterprising Lohars (black-smiths) among them. They revived the industry of iron-smelting and of manufacture of iron and steel implements necessary for agriculture, hunting and domestic purposes. The village then served as a centre for production and sale of iron and steel implements. According to another version as given by an old Kamar of the village, the process of smelting iron is locally called 'penthoi'. The village therefore acquires the name Penthabahal, signifying a land of processing iron.......... It appears that the naming of the village is closely associated with the indigenous industry of production of iron"[1].

(*iii*) Brass and Bell-metal

A large bell-metal industry existed in Sambalpur town during the first decade of the present century, where a number of Kansaris (from *Kansa* which means bell-metal) worked only in bell-metal and at Tukra (or Kultatukra), a village near Kadobahal in Bargarh subdivision. A number of artisans were also found in Remenda, Barpali and Bijepur, and a few at Rampela and Katapali. The artisans were Kharuras and

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[1] Census of India, 1961—A Monograph on village Penthabahal.

Kansaris, and the articles most commonly turned out were *lotas*, bowls, basins, plates, saucers, drinking-mugs, water-cans, lamp-stands and pipes, besides the curious boat-shaped anklets worn by many women. Brass cooking and water pots (*Kalsis*) were usually imported, but were being made locally to a small extent, for during the famine of 1900 some brass-workers migrated from the south and settled in Tukra, and the local workmen were trying to acquire the craft. The old brass-work of the district was often curious and much superior to anything then attempted, but it was melted down without regard to its artistic superiority.

(*iv*) Gold and Silver ware

Gold and silver ornaments were made by the local caste of Sonars (from Sona which means gold). The ornament most commonly made, which was to be seen on the necks even of poor women, was the *Khagala*, a band of silver lying flat on the bosom and encircling the neck as a thick round wire. Other common articles of silver were the bangles, armlets, and anklets worn by women, the round ring worn on their wrists by men, and broad flexible silver-ware waist-belts. The usual gold ornaments were amulets, necklets, nose-buttons, ear-rings for the lobe and tip of the ear, and finger-rings. Among other products of the silver-smith's art were fancy articles of silver, such as immitations of the royal canopy or umbrella and figures of beasts, which were said to be not much inferior in finish to the silver work of Cuttack.

(*v*) Stone-carving

Carving on stone was the hereditary function of a caste known as Sansias. The caste has two subdivisions, the Banaria and the Khandait Oriya. The former still parctise carving, but the craft has been given up by the latter. The stone generally used for carving small images was a black stone resembling marble or a green stone like Jade, but a fine red sand stone called *Dalima* was being used for larger figures. The dalima stone was rarely found in the district, but was imported from Kalahandi. The stone mostly used was quarried at Sason and was well adopted for chiselling.

(*vi*) Sisal Hemp

The pioneer of this industry was Mr. Casey of Nildungri who had planted out over 1,000 acres (405 hectares) with Sisal, and extracted the fibre which was very valuable for the manufacture of a specially strong and durable rope. He also had his own ropery by adopting bicycles for twisting the fibre. At present the State Government has taken over the entire plantation and the unit and producing sisal rope (The rope factory is discussed later in this chapter). Sri Brajamohan Panda of Sambalpur had also started a sisal hemp plantation and factory ta Sitlenpali which is producing sisal fibre at present.

(vii) **Lac Cultivation**

Mr. F. C. Osmaston, Divisional Forest Officer, Sambalpur writes as follows in 1939 "Although lac has been regularly cultivated in some of the adjoining Orissa Feudatory States, until recently little or no interest in lac was taken in the Sambalpur district. In 1925-26 the Forest Department began experiments in lac culture, and these have continued until in 1928 a Lac Farm of 192 acres (77·76 hectares) was laid down at Jhankerbahali in the Sambalpur East Forest Division. This is being developed with the object of seeing whether lac can be successfully cultivated in the district. That it can be successful is by no means certain. The climate during April and May is dry and hot, and devoid of those heavy showers which occur in Chota Nagpur at that time, and which so greatly help in ensuring a successful summer crop. The lac hosts are being grown in company with field crops cultivated by village tenants as this inter-cultivation between the lac hosts is thought to improve growth conditions sufficiently to overcome the severe hot weathers. If successful, the Lac Farm will be used as a demonstration area, so that villagers in the district can learn lac cultivation and obtain some brood locally at reasonable rates. Consistent with these objects, the Lac Farm will be run on as commercial a basis as possible. The hosts being used and being supplemented by planting are *palas* (*Butea frondosa*), one of the commonest trees in cultivated lands in the district, *Kusum* (*Schleichera trijuga*) and *Khair* (*Acacia catechu*) which is common in certain types of waste land. The two years' experience so far suggests that it will be possible to cultivate lac successfully and at a profit, as long as the price of T. N. in Calcutta does not fall below Rs. 60 per maund. But mortality in the hot weather is certainly heavy, and although the winter crops are likely to be more successful, it is certain that results in the Sambalpur district cannnot be expected to be so successful as in Chota Nagpur or Singhbhum. Complete failures and necessity to buy brood from outside the district will be commoner then elsewhere, while good years are unlikely to be so good or so frequent as in other districts. But it has already been proved that lac on a moderate scale is climatically possible". At present there is no trace of lac cultivation in the district

72. Power

Orissa has been a typical example of poverty amidst plenty. There are large deposits of minerals, but they remained unexploited for want of power. This deficiency has been overcome by implementation of Hirakud Dam Project, in this district and the Thermal Power of Talcher in Dhenkanal district. Hirakud has a total installed capacity of 2,72,000 Kilowatts, that is 2,00,000 Kilowatts at the main dam and 72,000 Kilowatts at Chipilima. Before the Hirakud Project was started, the total installed capacity in the State was only 300 Kilowatts. The Aluminium plant, the Cable Factory, Structural Workshop, all at Hirakud, the

Orient Paper Mills, the Collieries and the Caustic Soda Factory at Brajarajnagar, the Belpahar Refractories, the Cement Factory at Bargarh and several other industries in the district are based on the power generated from Hirakud. Notable industries set up in other districts which get the benefit of Hirakud Power are the Steel Plant at Rourkela, the Cement Factory at Rajgangpur, the Ferro-manganese Factory at Joda and the Ferro-chrome Factory at Jajpur Road in Cuttack district. A list of Industries that consume Hirakud Power is given in Appendix I. Town and rural electrification also consume a sizeable quantity of this power.

Diesel Power House

The first electric power house was established at Deogarh in 1905 It consisted of two generators. During 1916 the power house was switched over to that of hydro-generating sets by utilising the water from the Koradkot waterfall. At present there are two sets of 50 Kw. engines and one 75 Kw. engine in the Deogarh power house. The engines are diesel operated. The diesel power house at Rairakhol consists of two sets of 12 Kw. engine, a 25 Kw. engine and a 50 Kw. engine.

73. Mining

The important minerals found in the district are coal, fireclay, limestone and graphite. Other minerals like iron ore, manganese-ore, china clay, bauxite, mica, galena, corrundum, zircon, mineral pigments, kyanite and quartz also occur in small-scale. Diamond bearing sand near Burla is the latest exciting news.

(*i*) Coal

So far as occurrence of minerals is concerned, coal occupies the first place. The Rampur Coal Field is reported to have a total reserve of 140 million tonnes. The area is now under active mining operations. Extraction started here as early as 1909 by M/s. Hingir-Rampur Coal Company. Subsequently two other collieries, namely, Ib River Colliery and Orient Colliery have started extraction in this field from 1917 and 1955, respectively.

(*a*) Hingir-Rampur Coal Co.

The Hingir-Rampur Coal Company is mining near Brajarajnagar. The coal raised here has no export market. The entire quantity is consumed in India. The annual average output is 145,200 tonnes and Rs. 20,00,000 has been invested as capital. It is a private limited company with its head office in Bombay under the Managing Agency of M/s. Killick Industries Limited. The Industry provides employment to 1,142 persons.

The Railways and the Orient Paper Mills are the two main consumers of this coal. There are few other consumers, such as (*i*) Orissa Cement Limited, (*ii*) Rourkela Steel Plant, (*iii*) Belpahar Refractories, (*iv*) Gujarat Electricity Board, (*v*) Textile Mills in Madhya Pradesh, Gujarat and Maharastra, (*vi*) Jute Mills of West Bengal.

(*b*) Orient Colliery

The Orient Colliery of M/s. Central India Coalfields is also situated at Brajarajnagar. It started mining in 1954. The average output is 2½ lakh tonnes. The colliery provides employment to about 1,000 persons. The principal consumers are the Railways, Paper Mills, Cement Factories and Electric Power houses.

(*ii*) Fireclay

Fireclay deposits are confined to the Rampur Coal field areas. Exploitation of this mineral strarted as early as 1928. The first lease was taken by Shri Shankar Prasad Mishra. He sold it for a paltry sum to Tata Iron & Steel Company. The mines are in operation at Jurabaga and Darlipali near Belpahar by M/s. Tata Iron & Steel Company and at Talabira village near Lapanga Railway station by M/s. Orissa Cement Limited and M/s. Sambalpur Mineral Industries. The annual production of fireclay in the district reached 95,715 tonnes in 1961.

The fireclay supply mainly goes to the Refractory Plants at Belpahar, Rajgangpur and Jamshedpur. It also feeds the Rourkela Steel Plant and Ceramic Industry at Jharsuguda. The clay deposit at Khola near Lakhanpur belongs to Cuddapah system and it is used for manufacture of refractory.

(*a*) Talbira Fireclay Mines(Owner : Sambalpur Mineral Industries Limited)

Situated in village Talabira under Katarbaga police-station. The mining operation started in 1958. Mining is done by open cast with the help of manual labour. The quality of fireclay is of semiplastic nature suitable for medium heat duty refractories. This type of fireclay is obtained in an area of over one acre in a layer of 2 feet on the average. The entire area is not yet estimated. Approximately 1,000 tonnes are raised annually. It is only consumed in the local market, the main consumer being the Orissa Ceramic Industries, Jharsuguda. The entire share capital invested in the concern amounts to Rs. 50,000.

(*b*) Talabira Fireclay Mines (Owner : Orissa Cement Limited)

Situated in village Talabira under Jharsuguda police-station. Mining operation started in 1957. It was open cast operation. As estimated, the total reserve of fireclay is about 150,000 tonnes. The qualities are plastic, non-plastic, semi-plastic and calcined clay. The average output per year is 3,080 tonnes. The mineral is not exported. The main consumer is Orissa Cement Limited itself which utilises it for manufacture of refractories. On the average, it employs 60 labourers daily

(c) Belpahar Fireclay Quarry (Owner : Tata Iron and Steel Company)

Situated in village Jurabaga under Brajarajnagar police-station. The estimated reserves in Darlipali are 2·55 million tonnes, in Jurabaga 3·35 million tonnes, in Block 'A' Jurabaga 0·17 million tonnes and in Block 'B' Darlipali 22·11 million tonnes. The annual average output is 95,000 tonnes. Mining operations started in the main quarry in 1928, in Block 'A' in 1933 and in Darlipali in 1955. The fireclay is consumed by the Tata Iron and Steel Company, Jamshedpur and the Belpahar Refractories for manufacture of fire bricks. Rs. 14,76,100 has been invested as capital. The industry provides employment to about 745 persons.

(iv) Limestone

Large deposits of Limestone and dolomite, suitable for manufacture of cement, flux and lime burning, occur around Sulai, Padampur, Lakhanpur, Dungri. Sauntamul, Badmal, Behera, Banjipali, Kusmuda and Putka. The deposits at Sulai would yield about 8 million tonnes and those around Sauntamul, Badmal and Dungri about 80 million tonnes of which at least 35 million tonnes constitute the cement grade. The mines are being explored by M/s. Industrial Development Corporation a State owned enterprise, to feed the Cement Factory at Bargarh. The Dungri Limestone Quarry was declared open on the 4th April 1966. Up to the end of 1969 nearly 5·3 lakh tonnes of ore has been extracted. The quarry employs about 1,200 labourers at present. The limestone deposits at Lakhanpur have been found to be argillaceous and a reserve of 18 million tonnes have been anticipated by the Geological Survey of India. The deposits which occur in the adjoining area of Nawapara (Kalahandi district) and Pukta hold a prospect of at least 10 million tonnes.

(v) Graphite

Graphite occurs at Baduapali, Baghmunda, Sitapali, Sargipali Brahmantal and Dalugaon. The deposits at Sargipali are under mining operation since 1944. The area is under geological and geophysical investigation of the State Mining Department.

Sargipali Graphite Mines

It is situated at Sargipali under Padampur police-station. The mining operation was started in 1945. It yields an average output of 300 tonnes. The capital investment is Rs. 1,50,000. About 30 persons work here. The graphite is carried by trucks to Nawapara, the nearest rail-head which is 50 miles (80·5 Km.) off. It feeds the crucible industries, foundries and steel mills.

(vi) Iron-ore

Several deposits of iron-ore are known to occur round Lohakhand, Akhradand, west of Dingrabahal, south-west of Pandapali and Kotgaon. The total reserve of iron-ore in these areas has been estimated at 20

million tonnes. The average ore contains about 60 per cent iron, 0·76 per cent manganese and 0·31 per cent phosphorous. The areas are not mined as yet.

(*vi*) Manganese ore

Manganese ore deposits are prevalent in Sagamalia Reserve Forest in Charmal police-station, and Tikilipara and Badibahal areas in Jamunkira police-station. Two leases were worked in Sagamalia Reserve Forest in 1955, but due to low percentage of manganese (about 40 per cent) and long lead, the working was considered uneconomical. The area near Tikilipara has been leased out for mining operation.

(*vii*) China-clay

It occurs in small quantity at Ghichamura, Banjipali, Chubkitikra, Sagunpali and Katapali. The areas are under investigation. There are also a few occurrences of white lithomarge associated with ochre in areas lying to the north of Akuradand and in Nalibasa areas of Bamra ex-State.

Khola China-clay Mines

The Khola China-clay Mines is situated near Lakhanpur in Bargarh Subdivision. Mining operations started there in 1961. The reserve is estimated at 60,000 tonnes. It is held under a lease by a private party. The average annual output is 1,200 tonnes. The consuming industries are Belpahar Refractories, Orissa Industries, Rourkela, and Orissa Cement, Rajgangpur. Difficulties are there in transport. Trucks carry 5 miles up to the bank of Hirakud reservoir, then boats carry across the reservoir (about 13 Kms.) and from the other bank of the reservoir trucks again carry 30 Kms. to reach Belpahar. From Belpahar the clay is carried by railway to the industrial centres.

(*viii*) Mica

Mica books of about 3″ size are found near Kenchhodadar, Buromal, Chhamunda and Burhiakata. The deposits near Kenchhodadar were exploited previously. But the workings have been abandoned because of marketing difficulties.

(*ix*) Mineral pigments

Red shales associated with Cuddapah sandstone and flagstones occur around Ganjar, Khadupani, Jobhata and Pandupani. Thin beds of soft red shales are also seen in Liakhai and Ulap in the Rampur Coal fields. The area has been leased out, but operation has not yet started.

(*x*) Bauxite

There are huge deposits of bauxite in the Gandhamardan Plateu in Borasambar region. The area is under investigation by the Directorate of Mines.

(*xi*) **Kyanite**

Deposits of kyanite occur at Phatatangar and Mahulmunda near Garposh railway station. It has been leased out for mining. But mining operations have not started. The kyanite is of bladed type and contains much silica.

(*xii*) **Building materials**

Old and black slates associated with Cuddaph formation near Bargarh, coloured flagstones around Ghemjer, Khadupani, Jobhata etc., are worth mentioning.

(*xiii*) **Other minerals**

Quartz occurs at Pandri and Kansar; beryl at Buriakata; galena at Talpatia, Thuntikatarbaga and Gangajal; corrundum at Badmal; zircon at Maulbhanja, and in Rairakhol police-station. But they are of meagre economic importance. These areas have not so far been thoroughly prospected.

Mineral production figures from 1964 to 1968 are given in appendix II. Mining revenue from 1964-65 to 1968-69 is given in appendix III.

74. **Large-scale Industries**

Hirakud–Brajarajnagar region is one of the few places of Orissa where a number of large-scale industries have concentrated. These industries utilise the mineral resources of the neighbouring area. The paper mill at Brajarajnagar is based on forest products. A number of engineering industries have also developed near Hirakud during recent years.

Important industries of the district are discussed below.

(*i*) **Indian Aluminium Company, Ltd., Hirakud**

The Company was incorporated in 1938 under the name of "Aluminium Production Company of India Limited which name was changed in 1944 to "Indian Aluminium Company, Limited." It was started as a private enterprise with a share capital of Rs. 1,30,000 under the sponsorship of Alcan Aluminium Limited, Canada, the largest aluminium producer in the world. At present the Company's paid up share capital is over Rs. 12,30,00,000 of which 37 per cent is held by 7,000 Indian share-holders. The Company's assets exceed Rs. 48,30,00,000.

At the invitation of the Government of India a technical team from Alcan Aluminium Limited (The Company's Principal share holder) had investigated the possible sites for putting up a sizeable aluminium smelter in India and had recommended the establishment of a plant in the close vicinity of the Hirakud hydroelectric station. Besides, some other factories started in other parts of India, the Company began the construction of a new 20,000 tonne smelter in Orissa at Hirakud. The

smelter was put up in two stages of 10,000 tonnes each. Stage I was commissioned in January 1959. After the completion of Stage I came the Stage II which was completed in November 1961.

The Company manufactures and deals in aluminium and semi-fabricated products—ingots, sheets, circles, extrusions, foil, rod, powder, paste, pyro-technic powder, filter cake, also alumina and carbon paste.

(*ii*) Aluminium Industries Limited, Hirakud

It is a Public Limited Company. having its head office at Kundara (Kerala State). The factory at Hirakud was started by this company in two stages—the Cable Mill was inaugurated in 1959 and the Rod Mill in 1960. The production capacity of both these mills is 3 600 tonnes of aluminium bare conductors and 3'600 tonnes of 3/8" diameter E. C. grade aluminium rods.

The Company has invested a capital of rupees one crore.

(*iii*) Orient Paper Mills Limited, Brajarajnagar

The first paper mill in Orissa was started at Brajarajnagar by Messrs. Orient Paper Mills Limited in 1939. The paper production capacity of the mill was 22 tonnes per day. With subsequent additions of improved machineries the capacity was raised to 50 tonnes. During the period 1948 to 1951 some extentions were done to the plant and the production capacity increased to 100 tonnes per day. The third phase of improvement was taken up in 1956. New machines were installed and the average production of paper and board was raised to 200 tonnes per day.

The Company have invested Rs. 730'07 Lakhs (as on the 31st March 1968) in this paper mill, which produces various kinds of printing and writing paper, packing and wrapping paper, board, crepe, water-proof and polythene coated paper.

The principal raw material consumed by the paper mill is bamboo. It also uses waste paper, pine and other soft woods and subsidiary raw materials for production of paper and board. The nuisence caused by the effluent from the paper mill has been partially solved by a soda Recovery pla t.

(*iv*) Belpahar Refractories Limited, Belpahar

This Refractories Plant, one of India's biggest and most modern, has been put up jointly by the Tata Steel and the Didier Werke of West Germany at a cost Rs. 3 88 crores. Belpahar was chosen as the site for its proximity to a number of raw material bearing areas and to the steel plants at Rourkela, Jamshedpur and Bhilai. Fireclay is available in the quarry two miles away from the factory. But at present the fireclay mine at Belpahar is not in a position to meet the entire requirements of different types of clay. Hence, the Company is drawing part of their requirements from Palamau district of Bihar and Cuttack district of Orissa. High

Volatile coal is available from the Hingir-Rampur Colliery which is there within a distance of 13 km. Chrome ore comes from Sukinda Mines in Cuttack district and quartzite is received from the mines at Kendudih in Singhbhum district. Magnesite comes from Salem in Tamilnadu where a plant has been erected at a cost of Rs. 45 lakhs for calcining the magnesite ore before despatch to Belpahar.

The factory started production in 1959. Prior to this the basic and silica bricks were being imported from foreign countries. The Plant turns out fire-bricks, silica-bricks and basic-bricks both burnt and chemically-bonded for use in furnaces. The steel plants at Rourkela Jamshedpur, Bhilai, Durgapur, Burnpur, the ordnance factories of Government and various glass factories in the country are the principal consumers. The Company has recently started exporting its product to Uganda, Egypt and Republic of China.

(v) Orissa Weavers' Co-operative Spinning Mills Limited, Tora

A spinning mill has been constructed at Tora, near Bargarh at a cost of rupees 88·37 lakhs. It is a co-operative enterprise and has been registered during 1959. There are 327 share-holders, the paid-up share capital being Rs. 33·44 lakhs. The installed capacity of the factory is 12,000 spindles. The unit has not gone into production. When completed it will produce 4,417 kilograms of yarn per annum. The primary object of this unit is to assure supply of yarn to the handloom weavers' co-operative societies.

(vi) Hira Cement Works, Bardol (Bargarh)

The Industrial Development Corporation of Orissa Ltd. (A Government of Orissa undertaking) has set up a cement factory at Bardol near Bargarh at a cost of Rs. 7·27 crores. The construction of the factory was taken up towards the early part of 1964 and was finally commissioned in February 1968. The factory utilises the limestone available from the Dungri limestone quarry.

Port-land cement conforming to Indian Standard Specification No. 269 of 58 is manufactured under wet process by means of 2 rotary klins where the slurry prepared out of crushed limestone and morrum is burnt by a process of firing pulvarised coal for the production of clinker and then ground into fine cement. The products are marketed in the zone fixed by the Cement Corporation of India, comprising of Orissa, portion of Bihar, West Bengal, Assam, NEFA, Manipur,

Tripura and Nagaland. The factory authorities have appointed their stockists and distributors at different places for the marketing of cement.

(vii) Bargarh Co-operative Sugar Factory Limited

It has been decided to establish a Sugar Factory at Bargarh under co-operative ownership and management. The co-operative society was registered in 1959. The cost of the project is estimated to be rupees 220 lakhs. The daily average crushing capacity of the plant will be 1,250 tonnes with provision for further expansion. The construction of the factory has been started and is scheduled to be completed during 1971.

At present sugar-cane is being cultivated on 6,768 acres (2,741 hectares) of land situated within a radius of 25 miles (40 Kms.) from the factory which will be insufficient to feed the mill which will require 187,500 tonnes of sugar-cane every year during crushing season. So, further extension of sugar-cane cultivation is necessary.

(viii) Bhaskar Textile Mills Ltd., Jharsuguda

It is a private enterprise established since 1964 at Jharsuguda. The Company has invested Rs. 1·75 crores in the factory which produces cotton yarn from raw cotton procured from Maharastra. It provides employment to 1,700 persons.

75. Small-Scale Industries

A number of small-scale industries have developed in the district during recent years specially after the construction of the Hirakud Dam Project. Also the State Government have been giving various aids for development of these industries. Under the State-aid to Industries Act, these industries are being given increased financial assistance on liberal terms, supply of machinery on hire purchase basis, provision of ready-made factory buildings in Industrial Estates, supply of controlled raw materials and assistance to obtain raw materials from abroad, and free technical advice.

Concentration of forest based industries are pronounced in the district. There are about 38 saw mills, 30 bidi factories, 20 wooden furniture factories, 2 rope works, and 1 match factory. All the industries deriving their raw materials from forests employ nearly 1,500 persons. Bidi industries alone provide employment to about 1,100 persons.

There are about 35 rice mills and 40 rice hullers, 2 oil mills, 12 flour mills, 10 soap factories, 3 ice factories, 3 ceramic factories, 16 printing presses, 8 dyeing units, 14 chemical and pharmaceutical units, 2 fountainpen units, 10 Gudakhu (chewing tobacco) factories, 5 weaving factories, 150 tailoring works, 7 brass and bell-metal works, 15 automobile engineering works, 2 foundry works, 3 stainless steel units 15 iron and steel fabricating works, 4 cold storages, 2 paints and varnishes units, 15 bakery units, 5 confectionary units, 2 polythene industries and one industry each for manufacture of aluminium utensils, electric equipments, sodawater, leather goods, Ayurvedic medicines and allied hospital equipments and products. Besides, a tile factory, a sugar factory, 3 iron works, and 2 carpentry units which were started as Panchayat industries have been transferred to Orissa Agro and Small-Scale Industries Corporation from 1st October 1964.

Many among these units are so small that they can be taken under cottage industries.

Some of the important small-scale industries of the district are discussed below.

(i) Orissa Ceramic Industries Limited, Jharsuguda

The factory was started in 1961 at a cost of rupees three lakhs It produces salt glazed stone ware pipes for use in sewerage lines. The Government is the main consumer of its products. The factory utilises fire clay available from the Khinda mines and ordinary clay from the factory site. About 60 workers are working at present.

(ii) Hirakud Industrial Works

The Industrial Works put up at Hirakud by the Industrial Development Corporation of Orissa in 1962 at a cost of Rs. 50 lakhs manufactures transmission line towers, pug mills, tile presses, sheep foot rollers and rice hullers, etc. It is a Government of Orissa undertaking which employees about 430 persons.

(iii) Dhankauda Tile-making Co-operative Society

This factory is situated at Dhankauda--2 kilometres from Sambalpur town. The State Government has contributed Rs. 70,000 as share capital for construction of buildings. The unit has started production from the 1st October 1963. The annual production capacity is 5 lakhs of tiles.

(iv) Attabira Sugar-cane Factory

It is a co-operative undertaking located at Rengalipali near Attabira. The State Government has contributed Rs. 2,20,000 as share capital. At present the unit has stopped its production due to shortage of sugar-cane.

(v) Rice Mills

Production of paddy has gone up to a great extent due to irrigation facilities and introduction of intensive cultivation in this area. A large number of rice mills and rice-hullers have been set up in different parts of the district. At present there are 35 rice mills and 40 rice-hullers mostly located at Sambalpur, Bargarh, Hirakud and Jharsuguda.

A modern rice mill, the only one of its kind in Orissa is under construction at Hirakud by the Food Corporation of India with Japanese collaboration at a cost of about Rs. 12 lakhs. The entire machinery is imported with indigenous accessories. The mill is expected to produce better quality rice with higher outturn. The milling capacity of the plant is 20,000 tonnes of paddy per annum.

(vi) Power-loom, Tora

A power-loom factory has been established at Tora in Bargarh subdivision at a cost of Rs. 9·61 lakhs. It is a co-operative enterprise which employees about 94 persons and produces Dhotis, bed-sheets, napkins and long cloth, etc. The factory started production from September 1964. Average production per year is 8·50 lakh metres of cloth.

(vii) Fibre Factory

There is a fibre factory at Nildungri with a corona decoticator fitted with one 38 h. p. diesel engine. The annual production of sisal fibre is now about 80 tonnes, the value of which is nearly Rs. 2 lakhs. The extraction is seasonal in nature. It continues for six months (from November to May). The operation includes fibre extraction, removal of sisal waste, washing, drying, brushing, and bailing the fibre. The factory employ 36 workers during these six months.

Sisal ropes are being manufactured by a hand operated machine at Nildungri. The quantity produced is very small. It is sold in local markets. The bulk of the fibre is exported.

76. Cottage Industries

Among cottage industries of the district mention may be made of cotton weaving, *bidi* making, carpentry, pottery, blacksmithy, hand pounding, match making, soap making, metal works, etc.

Besides handloom there were 96 industrial co-operative societies in the district during 1969. The list of these industries is given below:

Name of Industry		No. of Co-operative Societies
1. Hand pounding	..	27
2. Oil pressing	..	15
3. Bee-keeping	..	2
4. Fibre	..	2
5. Carpentry	..	3
6. Blacksmithy	..	2
7. Spinning	..	3
8. Soap making	..	1
9. Cottage match	..	1
10. Sugarcane growers	..	6
11. Non-ferrous metal	..	5
12. Leather	..	15
13. Pottery	..	7
14. Handicraft	..	3
15. Miscellaneous	..	4
Total	..	96

Some important village industries are discussed below :

(i) Cotton weaving—

The district is famous throughout India and even abroad for handloom fabrics. It is an indigenous industry manned mostly by Kostha and Bhulia weavers. Besides their acroit workmanship, the speciality of their products is reckoned more for the choice of colour and the design. This has earned them world-wide fame. This industry was in a flourishing condition in the past. Some fine exhibits of handloom fabrics at the British Exhibition in Wembley in 1924 and 1925 were much appreciated and orders were obtained though the department of Industries and Labour for a supply of the said type of cloth. The weavers exhibited considerable taste in colour and variety of pattern. Even the coarsest cloth was woven with a dainty border. The Bhulias had nothing to fear from competition with mill cloth as they made good use of their monopoly of inherited skill. The Gandas who weave a cheaper and coarser cloth went down against the onslaught of the glamour of mill cloth.

Sambalpur sarees found a brisk market not merely in Sambalpur district but also in all the neighbouring districts. Their colour and design and the method of wearing made the women look some of

the prettiest women in the world. Even it has been found that women of this district rarely wear mill-made sarees or handloom sarees produced in other parts of the State.

Scarcity of raw materials, want of capital and lack of marketing facilities are the greatest impediments in their progress. They manufacture generally Saree, Dhoti, Gamucha, bed-sheets, etc. Gradually many co-operative societies are being formed of the weavers of the district. Technical aid is also being given. During 1966-67 there were 96 weavers' co-operative societies in the district consisting of 14,426 members. The total working capital was Rs. 30,14,000. There were 12,433 looms for weaving cotton fabrics and 1,365 looms for silk weaving in the district out of which 6,447 looms and 180 looms, respectively were working during 1966-67.

(ii) Bidi making

Bidi is made by wrapping dry raw tobacco in Kendu leaf. It takes the shape of a cone, the thick end being about half the size of a cigarette The leaf is folded in to stop the tobacco falling out. The whole Bidi is tied with a very thin thread to prevent the leaf unwrapping.

Several small units sprang up in the district for manufacture of Bidis. This industry has been fostered by the development of the trade in Kendu leaf, Sambalpur being one of the chief sources of supply of this leaf, which was extensively used in making Bidi. Only a very small portion of the leaf was used in the district, the bulk of it being exported to Bombay, Calcutta and other parts of India.

(iii) Carpentry

This district is well known for forest wealth and for trading in timber. Logs and sawn wood are mostly exported. There are many skilled artisans, who manufacture articles like chairs, cots, almirahs and boxes and agricultural implements which find easy market in local towns and villages.

(iv) Toy-making

The following lines from *Yojana* (July 5,1964) give an account of toy-making industry in the district.

"Sambalpur in Orissa is one of the many places in our country well known for its wooden toys and dolls. The Simul tree grows in abundance in the district and the near-by Kalahandi forest. The village carpenters collect the wood and carve out from it a wide range of attractive toys.

"Toy-making is a traditional craft of the carpenters who follow it in their spare time. The main centres are the small villages—Kodabahal, Sonapur (in Bolangir) and Bargarh.

"Being soft, the Simul wood yields easily to the stroke of the carpenter's chisel. With great skill he carves out from a single piece of wood a variety of figures, particularly of the familiar wild and domestic animals like the cat, the horse, the tiger and the elephant. The size and the use of two or more bright indigenous colours distinguish the Sambalpur toys from those of other parts in the country. They are not like the light and linear traditional folk-toys of Kalighat; they do not also resemble the tiny models produced at places in Uttar Pradesh. Four square in structure, and heavier, the colourful Sambalpur toys are excellent specimens of the village carpenter's craftsmanship."

(v) Other minor industries

Among minor industries, mention may be made of bamboo work and basket-making, which was in the hands of Turis, Mahars, Kandias, Birjias and Betias, Large number of baskets were exported from Sason and Rengali stations. Drums were made by Ghasias, which the Kols used largely for their dances. The District Council had endeavoured to develop a tanning industry in the district, and had a Chamar of Barpali trained at Utkal Tannery at Cuttack with this end in view, but the industry made little progress. Glass bangles were made in several villages, but the industry was on a very small scale and it could not flourish.

77. Industrial arts

Sambalpur textiles with traditional designs have earned wide renown and have been highly commended in markets all over the world. This artistic get up and brilliant colour schemes have made them a rare, creation in textiles.

Orissa with her long sea-board was in the past a prosperous kingdom. Her enterprising merchants were carrying on trade with many countries in the East. They were regularly calling at the ports of the islands of the East Indies such as Java, Sumatra and Bali with merchandise. Today the cloth designs in those places bear close resemblance, both in figure work and in processing, to the textiles of Sambalpur.

The traditional designs have undergone vast changes at the hands of the master craftsmen and they have been enriched by varied motifs from the temple sculpture and nature to suit the tastes of the people down the ages. These fabrics are excellent pieces of art which are being adopted to changing tastes and fashions. But the processing and methods of producing these designs remain practically the same.

Traditional designs

The traditional cloth designs are mainly produced by (1) the Tie and Dye-processes, and (2) extra yarn stitching.

The Tie and Dye process is applied to a variety of fabrics. It imparts elegance and beauty to a very wide range of fabrics from the coarse quiltings and furnishing fabrics to dress materials of complicated designs and tapestry fabrics. Apart from the richness of motifs, the harmonious blending of colours and their rainbow brilliance have made the Tie and Dye process unique in textile designing. It is equally, striking to note that without employing any extra shedding mechanism like the Jacquards and Dobbies, elaborate and rich figure effects are obtained on the cloth by the use of this process. Both the ground and figure weave plain and no extra ends are required for figures. The fabric is of compact texture and has comparatively stronger wearing properties.

The process and methods employed therein are equally interesting. Both the warp and weft are dyed by this process according to the need of the design. Thus, for borders, the warp alone is processed; for Palavs or Anchals the weft is processed; and for the over-all body designs both the warp and weft are processed. Before carrying on the actual process, the yarn to be employed as warp or weft has to be wound round a wooden frame. The length of one turn in case of weft yarn wound depends on the reed width to be woven. The craft weaver mostly learns from his experience the total allownace he has to give in the length of the yarn, taking into consideration the counts of warp and weft and the reed and pick used in the cloth. The yarn, thus having been prearranged the man sits with his paper design before the frame and carefully binds the outline of the figure on the yarn itself. Thus, the weaver actually transfers the designs from paper to the yarn on the frame. This process s known as tying. While tying the weaver also takes into consideration the likely waste in the subsequent processes of winding, warping and looming and gives due allowance for it in the initial stage of preparing the yarn for tying. In one tying, yarn for several pieces of cloth of the same design is ready for dyeing.

The yarn which is now ready for dyeing is taken out from the frame. The dyeing is mostly done in the napthol colours. Parts of the tied yarn is dyed in different colours according to the colour scheme of the original design. The yarn is first dyed in the lighter shade and gradually developed in the deeper ones. To develop a second colour in the design, the first coloured portions are tied and the portion of the yarn on which the second colour has to be developed is processed. In one complete process of dyeing, dyed yarn for several pieces of cloth of the same design is ready for weaving.

Skilled Workmanship

Woven designs produced by this process differ from printed and jacquard designs. The figures produced by printing and jacquard can be developed only on one side of the cloth whereas equally prominent

bright coloured designs are produced on both sides of the cloth by the Tye and Dye process. This process, however, requires highly skilled workmanship and great precision. Thus, an expert remains fully engaged for about 20 days to prepare the yarn of a new design for weaving.

The process is at present widely practised in Cuttack, Sambalpur, Bolangir and Baudh-Khondmals districts of Orissa and in fact some of the traditional designs owe their origin to the master craftsmen of the Sambalpur, Bolangir and Cuttack districts. Mention may be made of the following designs :

Patola

This type of design has mostly animal and floral motifs. Among the animal motifs, elephants, deer and horses are common. Rose and jasmine are the popular floral motifs. The fabrics excel both in the richness and variety of colour and once used to be a necessary bridal wear.

Nakshatra Bhushan

These designs comprise of differently coloured and spotted star motifs and are used in a wide range of fabrics, both coarse and fine. They impart elegance to ladies' dress materials, skirts fabrics for light summer fashions and have universal appeal.

Saptapadi

This design has for its motif the dice board in keeping with its special use. It is a post wedding custom among the newly married couple to play the game of dice and these fabrics were designed for the occasion. Furnishing fabrics, quiltings, table mats, table covers in coarser testures and skirts and Palav in finer textures have also adopted these designs.

Ornamental Fabric

BICHITRAPURI

This is a design in check pattern with elaborate figuring in a wide range of colours of flowers, creepers and animal motifs in between the squares. This makes a richly ornamental fabric and can be employed to grace any occasion or any customary celebration. In fact most of the modern designs in 'Tie and Dye' are derived from the Bichitrapuri patterns. The designs are full of lifee and movement with a strong aesthetic appeal.

MUKTAJHARI

These designs comprise of an unique combination of the floral and animal motifs in rich colour combinations and contrasts. They are mostly applied on Sarees and dress materials.

KUMBHA

This is a Bandha design with the motif of a temple tower. The prominence and boldness of these designs are very difficult to achieve by other process of weaving except the Tie and Dye

weaving where both the warp and wept are pre-dyed in the same colour. This design is generally applied in borders and narrow fabrics and in a variety of textures.

The above are only a few traditional designs from the vast gallery of Tie and Dye fabrics and are in no way exhaustive.

It affords unlimited scope for designing and improvement in processes. For example, the dyeing process which previously used to be done in few colours of vegetable origin had only a small range of colours namely, red, white, yellow and black. With the use of chemical dyes a vast range of colours in different shades and with different toning effects can now be introduced. Similarly, emphasis may now be shifted from the natural motifs to more commercial motifs with traditional background.

Government have started a research station for experimenting on the Tie and Dye designs. This centre has been able to evolve some new designs with new motifs and colour schemes.

Extra Yarn Stitching

In contrast with the Tie and Dye, designs produced by the extra yarn stitching have derived their motifs from the temple sculptures of Orissa. Though they cannot claim to be as old as the Tie and Dye designs, yet they have been practised for centuries. The important centres of this type of work are in the Cuttack and Puri districts. In addition to employing different colours, different classes of yarn are also used to impart special charm to the fabrics.

Regular extra weft designs in the Palav and borders and even in the whole body could be woven by the use of staves. Seven staves were in common use for the borders whereas up to 40 staves could be employed for the whole body figuring in a pit loom engaging two weavers to work simultaneously. Dobbies and jacquards through the use of which similar weave effects can be had, are now slowly replacing this laborious process. In this process in which warps are controlled by staves hung from the top frame of the loom and supported by dead weights at the other end, the desired figuring effect is obtained by lifting staves with hand as required in the design and controlling the individual warp ends.

Screen Designs

Screen designs are, however, of a different type of texture and show a prominent embossed design on the face of the colth. This is done by stitching extra yarn on the plain ground. The extra yarn thus employed may be of different colours and materials.

Following are a few traditional designs of this class;

(a) BAMAN DESIGN

This design signifies the throne of Lord Jagannath during the famous car festival and lower panels are motifs from temples. The extra weft is stitched on a plain ground with the traditional Tie and Dye 'Kumba' border.

(b) TEMPLE DESIGN

These designs comprise of bold motifs of the renowned temples of Bhubaneswar Konark and Puri. These are fabrics of comeparatively coarser texture and rare artistic creation reminiscent of the skill and workmanship of the great sculptures of Orissa. The harmonious blending and interlacement of the various classes of dyed yarn of different materials make these fabrics attractive.

(c) MODERN DESIGN

There has been a noticeable change and departure from tradition in the modern designs of this class of fabrics. The vast number of motifs carved out of stone in the temple sculptures, the folk paintings, the filigree designs and the Alpana designs of the countryside have opened up a vast treasure for the textile designer. With the working of the pattern making factories a new outlook in designing has been ushered in, the old patterns have been reoriented and a number of new designs introduced.

78 Industrial potential and plans for future development

The industrial potentiality of the district has changed to a very great extent after the construction of the Hirakud Multipurpose Dam Project. A vast area is irrigated by the Hirakud irrigation system. Hydroelectric power is available from Hirakud. These factors have influenced both agriculture and industries based on agricultural produce The other important resources in this area are forests and clays. These factors will largely determine the nature of industrial growth in this area.

The availability of graphite in some parts of the district points to the prospect of starting a pencil making industry with plenty of wood of different varieties being ready at hand. Low grade coal is available in the Rampur coal mine. Prospect for producing coaltar in that area may be investigated. From the saw mills of Sambalpur and to a lesser degree from Bamra, huge quantity of saw dusts are available, the utilisation of which are not properly done. The ply-wood making is another industry which has a good prospect because of availability of the class of wood required for this purpose in Sambalpur. There is also prospect for strarting ancillary industries at Hirakud and Bargarh to feed the requirements of the large and medium scale industries already established in those areas.

79. Labour and Employers' Organisation

All the industrial labourers are not members of Labour Unions. Mostly workers of large industries have formed unions to safeguard their interests. A list of registered factories and mines with the number of workers employed by each of them and a list of Trade Unions of the districts are given as Appendices IV and V, respectively.

There is no employers' organisation existing in this district.

80. Welfare of Industrial Labour

The minimum wage level varies from one industry to another. A daily mazdoor (labourer) earns Rs. 1·50 to Rs. 1·25 per day as the minimum wage. But in certain industries like Indian Aluminium Company and Indian Aluminium Industry the minimum wage earned by a mazdoor is Rs. 230 per month excluding annual profit bonus.

The general condition of the workers engaged in small industries like rice and saw mills are deteriorating partly because of availability of cheap labour from Bilaspur area of Madhya Pradesh and partly because of rising cost of living which has not yet been duly compensated by the revised rate of minimum wages for different scheduled industries under the Minimum Wages Act, 1948.

The Orient Paper Mills, Brajarajnagar and the Bhaskar Textile Mills, Jharsuguda are covered under Employees' State Insurance Scheme which provides sickness and maternity benefits to the employees. The rest of the industries are covered under Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923 and Maternity Benefit Act which provides accident benefits, benefits for occupational diseases and maternity benefits, respectively. Regarding old age benefits, almost all big industries have got their own gratuity schemes and the statutory provisions also provide provident fund facilities to the employees where more than twenty workers are employed.

Messrs. Indian Aluminium Company, Hirakud and Messrs. Orient Paper Mills, Brajarajnagar conduct sports activities among the workers and arrange cultural programmes for amusement of their employees. Besides, the major industries have provided houses for their workers, recreation clubs, hospitals, schools and subsidised canteens, etc.

The Indian Aluminium Company has got a "suggestion and method improvement scheme" which provides an incentive to the workers to suggest and to improve the method and standard of production in an economical way for which they receive monetary rewards and lucrative prizes. This also gives a belongingness to the workers in their industries.

APPENDIX I

List of Industries and other concerns that consume Hirakud Power

Name of Industry		Quantity of Power consumption (in Maximum Demand Megawatt)
Sambalpur and Sundargarh districts		
1. Indian Aluminium Company, Hirakud	..	50·00
2. Orient Paper Mills, Brajarajnagar	..	55·00
3. Refractories at Belpahar	..	1·20
4. Hingir-Rampur Colliery	..	0·80
5. Orient Colliery	..	0·70
6. Ib river Colliery	..	0·35
7. Steel Plant at Rourkela	..	110·00
8. Bird & Company, Biramitrapur	..	1·75
9. Orissa Cement Limited, Rajgangpur	..	6·60
10. Aluminium Industries Limited	..	2·50
11. TISCO Quarry, Panposh	..	0·35
12. Hatibari	..	1·50
13. Orissa Manganese and Minerals, Koira	..	0·35
14. Kiriburu Mining	..	5·00
15. Railway Electrification	..	25·00
16. Bandhamunda Marshalling Yard	..	2·00
17. Small-Scale Industries	..	2·60
18. Town and Rural Electrification	..	4·00

Name of Industry		Quantity of Power consumption (in Maximum Demand Megawatt)
Cuttack, Dhenkanal and Puri districts		
1. Titaghur Paper Mills, Choudwar	..	1·50
2. Kalinga Tubes, Choudwar	..	2·80
3. Orissa Cotton Mills	..	0·10
4. Orissa Textile Mills, Choudwar	..	2·00
5. Refrigerator Factory	..	2·00
6. National Foundary and Rolling Mills	..	0·25
7. Orient Weaving Mills	..	0·17
8. Orissa Industries, Barang	..	0·80
9. Cuttack Electric Supply Company	..	2·00
10. Puri Electric Supply Company	..	0·40
11. Railway Workshop, Khurda Road	..	0·50
12. Colliery, Talcher	..	2·00
13. Small-Scale Industries	..	Not available
14. Town and Rural Electrification	..	2·50
15. Ferro-Chrome Factory	..	6·00
16. Barsua Mines	..	3·50
Mayurbhanj, Keonjhar and Balasore districts		
1. Ferro-Manganese Plant, Joda	..	16·00
2. Tata Mines, East Joda	..	0·48
3. West Joda	..	0·30
4. Mines of Bird & Company, Barbil	..	1·90
5. Iron-Ore Mines of Lal & Company, Barbil	..	1·75
6. Ferro-Manganese Plant of Kalinga Industries, Barbil.		1·50
7. Mines of Serajuddin & Company, Barbil	..	0·25
8. Town and Rural Electrification	..	2·50
9. Small-Scale Industries	..	1·92
10. Power Supply to the State of Bihar	..	5·00

APPENDIX II

Mineral Production figures for the years from 1964 to 1968

(in Metric tons)

	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968
Coal ..	450,756	472,641	531,606	498,520	382,250
Fireclay ..	73,198	56,490	47,998	76,399	71,995
China-clay ..	12,302	2,209	1,612	3,124	3,977
Graphite ..	410	464	351	437	417
Limestone ..	..	..	21,873	74,382	167,364

APPENDIX III

Mining Revenue

		Rupees
1964-65	..	4,74,417
1965-66	...	8,55,268
1966-67	...	7,43,087
1967-68	–	8,64,415
1968-69	...	9,41,727

APPENDIX IV

Name of registered factory/Mines		Approximate number of workers employed
1. Orient Paper Mills Ltd., Brajrajnagar	..	3,000
2. Belpahar Refractories Ltd., Belpahar	..	1,500
3. Indian Aluminium Co. Ltd., Hirakud	..	700
4. Aluminium Industries Ltd., Hirakud	..	300
5. Bhaskar Textile Mills Ltd., Jharsuguda	..	1,600
6. Hira Cement Project, Bardol, Bargarh	..	800
7. Hira Cable Factories Ltd., Hirakud	..	200
8. Tora Weaving Centre, Tora	..	300
9. Orient Paper Mills Forest Centre	..	180
10. Hingir Rampur Colliery, Brajrajnagar	..	1,500
11. Orient Colliery, Brajrajnagar	..	1,600
12. S. K. Khansons (Stone Lime) Co. Private Limited, Brajrajnagar.		200
13. Ib Colliery, Brajrajnagar	..	250
14. Belpahar Fire Clay Mines, Belpahar	..	250

There are about 22 Rice and Flour Mills, 18 Saw Mills. fifteen Registered Bidi Factories and 80 other industries existing in the district.

APPENDIX V

Name of the Trade Union	Approximate number of members
1. Jharsuguda Industrial Mazdoor Union, Jharsuguda.	409
2. Hirakud Cable Factories Shramik Congress, Hirakud.	81
3. Industrial Development Corporation Employees' Union, Hirakud.	150
4. Orissa Ceramic Workers' Union, Jharsuguda ..	140
5. O. P. Mills Shramik Congress, Brajrajnagar ..	1,700
6. Orient Colliery Workers' Union, Brajrajnagar ..	647
7. Bargarh Cinema Staff Association, Bargarh ..	19
8. Aluminium Industries Employees Union, Hirakud	200
9. Bhaskar Textile Shramik Union, Jharsuguda ..	1,047
10. Hira Cement Shramik Sangh, Bardol ..	326
11. Orissa Pipe and Water Workers' Union, Sambalpur Branch, Sambalpur.	300
12. Indal Co. Works Employees' Union, Hirakud ..	500
13. All Orissa Transport Employees' Union, Sambalpur Branch, Sambalpur.	250
14. Alumunium Industries Workers Employees' Union, Hirakud.	330
15. Hirakud Mazdoor Union, Hirakud ..	70
16. Hirakud Workmen Association, Hirakud ..	2,274
17. Belpahar Refractories Employees' Union, Belpahar	1,000

CHAPTER VI

BANKING, TRADE AND COMMERCE

81. History of indigenous Banking

There has never been known any organised indigenous banking in the district. The usual rural pattern of the credit system maintained by village money-lenders, Sahukars, Mahajans, Gountias, etc., had obtained unchallenged in this district for generations before the year 1945, when a Central Co-operative Bank came to be established. In spite of the fact that their methods continued to be old and antiquated, these traditional classes of creditors remained until recently the most important, if not the sole group controlling the bulk of the credit. These creditors still go on considerably unattracted by any banking policy. As they operate with their own funds without ever coming to the Reserve Bank for accommodation, they are immune from, and independent of, the bank's credit control.

82. General credit facilities available. Causes of rural indebtedness:

Causes of rural indebtedness are usually two-fold. One set of causes compels the agriculturists to borrow and the other enables them to borrow. General poverty, due to deficit agricultural economy, cattle mortality, ancestral debt, sickness, litigation, extravagance on social ceremonies, insecurity of crops due to capricious weather and money required for productive purposes force the agriculturists to have resort to borrowing. Increase in the value of land, existence of effective legal provisions for the recovery of debt which reassure the creditor, and high rates of interest charged by the creditors encourage the creditors to advance the desired debt without much risk.

83. Private money-lenders and financiers :

Generally the village money-lenders, Gountias, Zamindars, etc., used to meet the loan required by the people. Mention may also be made of another class of money-lenders the Kishtiwalas. The old Kabul money-lender who went from village to village to lend small amounts to the cultivators has now vanished or at any rate become scarce. Most of the old money-lenders of this class have returned to Afghanistan. Their methods were obnoxious in the extreme. They did not require any security and relied on their brute force for realisation of their debts with exorbitant interest. Some money-lenders who lend money and realise it in instalment still carry on a very profitable business and their

clientele consists largely of low-paid employees of local bodies, or even of Government and one may see members of this fraternity hovering round Government and municipal offices on any pay day. They gather there in order to confront their debtors as the latter emerge with their pay-packets and to collect their instalments. The usual *modus operandi* of the Kishtiwala is to advance sums in multiples of ten which are repaid at the rate of one rupee per month for 12 months. While advancing the loan, they would deduct one rupee per ten rupees, as advance repayment for the month in which the loan is advanced.

It is difficult to give a list of the money-lenders or the volume of their business without assiduous enquiries and it is not likely that the money-lenders themselves will co-operate in disclosing the true volume of their business. The reasons are obvious. So no attempt has been made to get this information which, even if obtained, could hardly be considered as very reliable.

84. State Bank of India and other banks

The first bank, on modern lines, to be established was the Central Bank of India which commenced functioning in 1941 followed by the Punjab National Bank in 1956 and United Commercial Bank in 1959. A Treasury Pay Office of the State Bank of India was opened at Sambalpur in 1951. Hitherto no commercial banks were induced to extend their activities to the district due to its under-developed character. However, for the spread of banking habit, the State Bank of India opened branches at Sambalpur in 1953 at Bargarh in 1958, and at Kuchinda in 1967. A Pay Office of the Bank was opened at Jharsuguda in 1960. In 1966 a branch office was opened there. The branches of the State Bank of India are under the administrative control of the Bank's Calcutta Local Head Office.

85. Co-operative Banks

Prior to 1956 there were two Central Co-operative Banks in the district, viz., the Sambalpur Central Co-operative Bank Ltd., and Bargarh Central Co-operative Bank Ltd. The Sambalpur Central Co-operative Bank attended to all the Subdivisions of Sambalpur district except Bargarh subdivision and the entire Sundargarh district. The Bargarh Central Co-operative Bank had its area of operation in the Bargarh Subdivision only.

The Bargarh Co-operative Circle started functioning from 1961 with Bargarh subdivision as its jurisdiction. Other subdivisions were under the jurisdiction of the Sambalpur Co-operative Circle, which

had its headquarters at Sambalpur. The advances made to the agriculturists and weavers through Co-operative Sector for 7 years are as below:

Year		Amount (in lakhs)
1962-63	..	79·31
1963-64	..	73·69
1964-65	..	66·83
1965-66	..	107·53
1966-67	..	80·76
1967-68	..	91·27
1968-69	..	172·87

The advances made by the village money-lenders, State Bank, and Life Insurance Corporation are not known. The approximate indebtedness of Bargarh subdivision is about Rs. 1·5 crores.

Prior to the opening of the Graingolla Co-operatives in 1955, the village money-lenders, Gountias and others having some surplus were lending paddy loans at the rate of 50 per cent and also were asking the borrowers to do some of their agricultural operations free of wages giving them some food for working days. But the Graingollas issued paddy loans at the rate of 25 per cent and in some cases 20 per cent and the borrowers were under no other obligations. The money lenders and Gountias, etc., were compelled to reduce their interest from 50 per cent per annum to 25 per cent.

The professional village money-lenders, Marwaris, and Sahukars are still in existence issuing loans with interest varying from the minimum 18 per cent to 37½ per cent. There are also instances where the money-lenders are charging old rate of one anna as interest per rupee per month which comes to 75 per cent per annum. The Marwaris and traders give cash loans to the cultivators at the time of agricultural operations with an understanding that they shall supply their produce after the harvest at a rate fixed by the trader or at a rate lower than the prevailing market rate at the time of harvest. It is the practice that they hardly execute any written bond or agreement for this type of loan as they have close contacts with the cultivator-borrowers. Moreover,

the cultivators of this area are very simple and God fearing to violate the terms. There are some hereditary professional money-lenders but their business in the villages is decreasing as the co-operative societies are able to meet some of their demands in cash and in kind at a lesser rate of interest. For the marketing of their produce the co-operatives at the village level have started linking credit with marketing. The Regional Marketing Co-operative Societies have started procurement of their produce offering reasonable rate. So far, eight Regional Marketing Co-operative Societies have been organised, e.g. at Sambalpur, Jharsuguda, Deogarh, Bamra, Bargarh, Padampur, Attabira, and Sohela. They are dealing in agricultural produce, fertilizer, agricultural good and requisite consumer goods. Their activities are given in the appendices I and II.

(i) Primary Land Mortgage Banks

The Primary Land Mortgage Banks are organised to advance long-term loans (repayable in 15 years) to agriculturists for improvement of land. In 1958 a Primary Land Mortgage Bank was opened at Bargarh with jurisdiction over Sambalpur, and Sundargarh districts. But the Provincial Co-operative Land Mortgage Bank, Ltd., Berhampur, was meeting longterm credit needs of the cultivators upto 1961. In 1962 the jurisdiction of the Bank at Bargarh was limited to the district and it had advanced a loan of Rs. 3,64,000. In 1965 another bank was opened. In 1967, there were five Primary Land Mortgage Banks, e. g., at Sambalpur, Bargarh, Deogarh, Kuchinda, and Rairakhol. Their activities are shown in the appendices III and IV.

(ii) Sambalpur District Co-operative Central Bank Ltd., Bargarh

The Sambalpur Central Co-operative Bank was amalgamated with the Bargarh Central Co-operative Bank on the 1st July 1956. It is known as the, "Sambalpur District Co-operative Central Bank Ltd.". It has jurisdiction over the entire district with headquarters at Bargarh. It has branches at Sambalpur, Deogarh, Jharsuguda, Kuchinda, Rairakhol, Attabira, Barpali, and Padampur. The bank is issuing loans for agricultural purposes. It is also issuing cash credit loans to non-agricultural credit societies. Besides, it has taken over bill collection business which is of immense help to local traders. The Bank receives three kinds of deposits allowing rates of interest as follows :—

1. Current Account .. ½ per cent

2. Savings Bank Deposit Account .. 3·75 per cent

3. For fixed deposits the interest varies from 4·5 per cent to 6·5 per cent according to the tenure of the deposits.

Details of deposits received by the bank from 1960-61 to 1968-69 are given below :—

Figures in Rs.

Years		Current	Savings Banks	Fixed	Others	Total
1		2	3	4	5	6
1960-61	..	2,73,875	6,11,316	16,16,742	2,50,402	27,52,335
1961-62	..	6,78,774	13,32,830	17,50,548	31,57,659	41,19,811
1962-63	..	6,97,304	10.21,856	15,40,876	9,37,943	41,97,979
1963-64	..	12,64,000	19,25,000	10,40,000	10,71,000	52,80,000
1964-65	..	5,66,000	24,82,000	12,38,000	8,88,000	51,74,000
1965-66	..	6,94,000	28,04,000	19,29,000	9,61,000	63,88,000
1966-67	..	8,88,000	30,74,000	31,34,000	64,000	71,60,000
1967-58	..	3,94,000	24,68,000	4,60,000	..	74,62,000
1968-69	..	5,84,000	33,17,000	51,21,000	..	90,22,000

The State Government have also participated in the affairs of the Bank by purchasing Share Capital of Rs. 6,00,000. The total paid-up Share Capital of the Bank by the year ending the 30th June 1969 stands at Rs. 32 46 lakhs which is four times of that obtaining in 1960-61. By June 1969 there were 429 members. The Bank is lending cash loans to the agriculturists through its affiliated societies for which the Bank charges interest at the rate of 7 per cent to 8 per cent and the societies in their turn issue loans at the rate of 9 per cent to 10 per cent to the ultimate borrowers. The Bank has issued Rs. 172.87 lakhs as various loans to the affiliated societies by the end of June, 1969. During the same period the Reserve Fund and other Funds were Rs. 19·19 lakhs, total owned capital was Rs. 51·65 lakhs, and working capital Rs. 204·84 lakhs. The progress of the Bank has been shown in appendix V.

(*iii*) Co-operation and Community Development

There are 29 Blocks of which 23 Blocks are under Package Programme. Two Co-operative Extension Officers in cadre of Senior Inspector of Co-operative Societies are posted in each of the 23 Package Blocks and one Co-operative Extension Officer in each non-Package Block. These Co-operative Extension Officers are entrusted with the work of supervision, inspection, collection, arbitration, execution, and proper maintenance of accounts of co-operative societies working in the Blocks. They are also entrusted with the organisation of new societies.

86. Life Insurance

The Branch Office of Life Insurance Corporation of India at Sambalpur started functioning from the 1st September1956 as a unit of Cuttack Divisional Office. There is also a Development centre at Jharsuguda,

Till the 31st March 1964, the Branch Office was doing only life insurance business. From the 1st April, 1964 it entered the field of general insurance business. In total, there are about 25,000 policy holders (from 1956 to March, 1970). The following figures show the life insurance business done by this Branch office :—

Year		Quantum of business (in Rs.)
1960-61	..	31,58,000
1961-62	..	56,15,500
1962-63	..	48,16,000
1963-64	..	58,89,250
1964-65	..	92,56,290
1965-66	..	1,18,38.500
1966-67	..	97,17,250
1967-68	..	1,17,75,000
1968-69	..	1,24,74,250
1969-70	..	1,43,50,250

87. Trade and Commerce

Rice is the staple export and is sent principally to Calcutta, but also to Tatanagar, Bombay, Chotnagpur, and Berar. Other exports include coal, oil-seeds, hemp, hides, and forest product such as timber, Kendu leaves, and Mahua flowers. The principal imports are salt, sugar, kerosine oil, piece goods, cotton cloth, cotton yarn, various cereals, and coal for the railway. Kerosine oil is brought from Calcutta and Bombay mills. Wheat, gram, and arhar are also imported, as they are not grown locally in sufficient quantities to meet the demand.

(i) Centres of Trade

Sambalpur, Bargarh, and Jharsuguda are the principal centres of trade. Bargarh, Bhukta, and Talpatia are the chief cattle markets. Professional cattle dealers go out to Sonepur, Patna, and Kalahandi and bring herds of cattle, mostly bullocks, and cows, for sale at the Bargarh market. Bhukta is the principal market for buffaloes. Herds of these animals brought from Bilaspur are purchased at this place who subsequently bring them for sale to Bargarh. Talpatia is a market for cattle and is visited by dealers of northern portion of Sambalpur Tahsil' Among other trade centres may be mentioned Jamurla, which is a central place for oil-seeds. Dhama, is a large timber market and Bhikampal, Katarbaga, and Talpatia are centres for the sale of country-made implements. A certain amount of trade in grain and household utensils is transacted at the annual fairs at Narsinghnath, and at Huma ; but most of the trade is carried on at village *hats*.

The district is surplus in rice. Other essential commodities like sugar, wheat, cement, kerosine, salt, coal, and coke which are not produced are imported from other districts of the State and from other States. The Supply Department's activities are mainly confined to the procurement of all available surplus stock of rice and paddy and arranging its export in accordance with the all-India basic plan under the instructions of the Government of Orissa and arranging the import of adequate quantities of other essential commodities and their equitable distribution within the district. The commodities which are handled by the Supply Department in this district besides rice, and paddy are textiles, cement, iron, kerosine oil, coal, paper, sugar, salt, live-stock, and other miscellaneous items like potatoes, ghee, vegetable oil, and fodder, etc. Control over these commodities for their import and distribution is enforced at times when there is scarcity of the commodities. The controlled commodities are distributed as per the rationing cards issued in the towns of Sambalpur, Jharsuguda, Bargarh, and Deogarh. The Consumers in the rural areas get the controlled commodities through Grama Panchayats. The foodgrains like rice and paddy are distributed through rice retail centres in the town and rural areas when necessity arises.

The main items of import and export of the district are :—

Imports .. .. Iron and Steel materials, cloth, gram and pulses, coal-tar, salt, sugar, kerosine oil, petrol, chrom ore, quartz, silica stone, wheat, lime-stone, lime, potatoes.

Exports .. Bamboo, firewood, timber, charcoal, myrobalan, kendu leaves, pipes, paper, paper board, refractory bricks, magnasite, bricks, fire clay, coal, mohua flowers, paddy, and rice.

The goods are generally exported to all over India such as Shalimar, Nagpur, Wadi Bandar, Howrah, Serampore, Anjore, Midnapore, Naupada junction, Chitpur, Ballygunje junction, Ranchi, New Delhi, Bhaga junction, and so on and imported from all over India such as Wadi Bandar, Maihar, Jukehi, Nandyal, Budge Budge, Rajgangpur, Armenian Ghat city Goods Booking Office, Chakulia, Bezwada, Dhamtari, Bhadli, Allahabad junction, Sanat Nagar, Bilaspur and so on. The main places of commercial importance are Sambalpur, Jharsuguda, Belpahar, and Bargarh.

The following figures shows the imports and exports of 5 years, in metric tonnes—

Year		Import	Export
1957-58	..	4,85,000	3,58,000
1958-59	..	5,05,000	3,80,000
1959-60	..	4,91,000	4,20,000
1960-61	..	5,25,000	4,19,000
1961-62	..	5,17,000	4,12,000

After 5 years, i. e., in the year 1967-68 the following is the position of imports and exports of the district:—

Imports 7,951,27 tonnes
Exports 4,357,24 tonnes

(ii) **Regulated Markets**

1. BARGARH

A regulated market was established at Bargarh under the Orissa Agricultural Markets Produce Act, 1958. Although this market was established during the year 1958-59, it was actually inaugurated on the 19th March 1960. The following commodities are brought under regulation in this market :—

I. Fibres —
(1) Sun-hemp

II. Cereals —
(1) Paddy
(2) Rice
(3) Wheat

III. Pulses —
(1) Biri (Black gram)
(2) Mung (Green gram)
(3) Kulthi (Horse gram)
(4) Bunts (Bengal gram)
(5) Chana

IV. Oil seeds :—
(1) Sesamum (Rasi)
(2) Mustard
(3) Groundnut (shelled and unshelled)

V. Animal Husbandry products—
(1) Cattle
(2) Sheep
(3) Goat

2. SAMBALPUR

The regulated market at Sambalpur was established on the 28th March 1962. The market area extends over the Sadar police-station, Burla, Hirakud, Sason. and Dhama and the market yard covers the entire municipal area of Sambalpur and a portion of National Highway (from border of Ainthapali up to village Remed). The following commodities have been brought under regulation .—

(1) Fibre : Sun-hemp, jute
(2) Cereals : Paddy, rice, wheat
(3) Pulses : Biri, Mung, Kulthi, Bunt, Chana, Khesari
(4) Oil-seeds : Groundnut (Shelled & unshelled), Mustard
(5) Vegetables : Potato and Onion.

(iii) **Centres of Business**

The following are the principal centres of wholesale business, where both wholesale and retail transaction take place. (1) Sambalpur, (2) Bargarh, (3) Jharsuguda, (4) Sohela, (5) Attabira, (6) Barpali, (7) Padampur, (8) Jamla, (9) Lakhmara, (10) Bagdihi, (11) Laida, (12) Bhukta, (13) Bijepur, (14) Kalla, (15) Gogua and (16) Riamal.

Brief notes in respect of each of these markets are given below :—

SAMBALPUR

This market is connected by rail with Jharsuguda junction on the main Howrah-Nagpur line. This market is also connected with a net-work of all-weather and fair weather roads. The Sambalpur-Raipur road passes through almost all the principal markets of the region. Other roads such as Sambalpur-Balangir, Sambalpur-Sonepur, and Sambalpur-Padampur also play a major role in the assembling of different agricultural commodities in the markets. In view of its conspicuous situation and an important rail-head market, Sambalpur draws supplies of agricultural commodities from a major part of Bargarh subdivision, part of Sonepur subdivision and Sadar subdivision of Balangir district. Some markets of Madhya Pradesh contiguous to this district also rush supply to Sambalpur market at frequent intervals.

The principal exports of this market are rice and paddy. Other exports include jute, hide, and skin. Forest products like timber, kendu leaves, etc., are also sent from this market to outside in huge quantities.

Imports of the market are salt, sugar, wheat, potatoes, onions, edible oils, gram and pulses, kerosine oil, textiles (cloth and yarn), etc. All these commodities are imported in substantial quantities and diverted to different consuming markets of the district.

There are altogether about 40 to 50 wholesale dealers operating in the market handling different commodities including cloth, yarn, iron and steel, and cement. A considerably large number of retail dealers (about 300) are also functioning in the market.

BARGARH

Bargarh is a Subdivisional headquarters. This market is connected by all-weather pucca road with Sambalpur and by railway with Jharsuguda junction on the Howrah-Nagpur line. Bargarh market is also connected with the producing areas of Sonepur and Balangir subdivision of Balangir district by all-weather communications. It has also trade activity with Saraipali, Basria and other contiguous areas of Madhya Pradesh because of easier communication available to those markets. On account of its convenient situation,Bargarh market draws appreciable quantities of agricultural commodities from different markets of this district and from outside markets. In the matter of imported commodities this market serves the entire Bargarh subdivision besides parts of Balangir district and some villages of Madhya Pradesh.

JHARSUGUDA

This is a junction station on main Howrah-Nagpur line of South-Eastern Railway. This maiket is also connected with Sambalpur and Sundargarh by all-weather roads. This market exports rice, and paddy to the tune of 7,210 qtls. and 2,709 qtls. respectively. Other exports of this maiket include hides and skins, and kendu leaves. In the matter of imported commodities this market serves part of Sundargarh district besides other areas of its own extending to four police-stations. There are in all 25 wholesalers operating in this market, besides a large number of retailers.

SOHELA

This market is situated at the junction of Sambalpur-Bargarh-Raipur and Sambalpur-Bargarh-Padampur roads communicable throughout the year. This market draws supplies from a large part of Madhya Pradesh in view of its convenient situation. In this market the average annual turn over of business is Rice 14,928 quintal, paddy 7,464 quintals, and groundnut 5,598 quintals.

ATTABIRA

This market situates on Sambalpur-Bargarh road at a distance of 35 kms. communicable throughout the year. One weekly market is held at this centre on Monday. Rice to the tune of about 1,120 quintals, is handled at this market in a year. Besides, groundnut of about 186 quintals are assembled annually There are two wholesale dealers at this centre who also function as retailers.

BARPALI

This centre situates on the 12th mile of Bargarh-Balangir road. This centre is more a consuming market in view of different developmental activities undertaken at this centre. This centre is noted for tassar cloth. One weekly market sits here on Monday. Average annual arrival of rice to this market is about 746 quintals. Three dealers are operating at this market centre.

PADAMPUR

This market is situated on Bargarh-Khariar road, motorable throughout the year. The entire trade ot the area covers Padampur, Melchhamunda, Gaisilat and Jagdalpur police-stations. Eight wholesalers are operating in this market besides a number of retailers. Annually about 1,30,800 quintals of rice, 373 quintals of groundnut, and 1,866 quintals of til seeds and pulses are assembled here.

JAMLA

This market situates on the 8th km. south of Bargarh-Padampur road. This market is connected with Padampur and other markets with fair-weather and Dharsa roads. One weekly market is held in this centre on Monday. The average annual turnover of the market is rice 7,464 quintals, til seed 746 quintals, and pulses 1,866 quintals.

AKHAMARA

This market situates on the 11th km. on Padampur-Jagdalpur road to the north of Padampur. One weekly market is held at this centre on Sunday. Rice to the tune of 3,732 quintals, and pulses to the extent of 1,866 quintals are annually handled at this market. There are four traders in the market who carry on both wholesale and retail trade.

BAGDIHI

This market is on a Railway Station on the main Howrah-Nagpur line. In view of its convenient situation, a number of merchants operate at this centre. The annual turnover of this market is about Rs. 9,00,000 in rice only. Besides huge quantities of forest produce like Mohua flower, crude gum, etc., are transacted annually at this centre.

LAIDA

This centre is connected with Sambalpur by a pucca road and with Jharsuguda by a Kutcha road. One weekly market is held at this centre on Tuesday. One wholesaler is operating in this market besides a number of retailers. Annually, 3,732 quintals of rice, 1,866 quintals of mohua flower, 2,500 number of goats, and sheep, and handloom cloth worth Rs. 60,000 are handled in this market.

BHUKTA

This market is connected with Bargarh by a pucca road, and situates on the border of Madhya Pradesh. It therefore draws supplies from that State. One weekly market is held here on Wednesday. Annually about 5,698 quintals of rice, 3,732 quintals of paddy, 858 quintals of oil-seeds are transacted. It is an important market for buffaloes, which are mostly procured from Bilaspur. There three merchants carry on the wholesale and retail transactions in the area.

BIJEPUR

This market is connected with a fair-weather road with Bargarh. The annual turnover of this market is 2,239 quintals of rice, paddy to the extent of 1,423 quintals. Groundnut to the tune of 373 quintals are assembled at this market annually.

KALLA

This is one of the biggest village markets of Deogarh subdivision. The market sits here every Tuesday. Paddy. rice, rabi seeds, and other consumer goods are sold here. Except during the rainy season, it is a busy market.

GOGUA

This is another big village market in Deogarh subdivision. The significant feature of the market is that this is the only place in the subdivision where besides usual commodities, cattle are marketed. Even people from Kuchinda, Talcher, Angul, Rairakhol, and Pallahara subdivisions come to this place to purchase cattle.

RIAMAL

This is also an important market. The adjoining villages are good paddy yielding areas. So the main items of trade in this market are rice, and paddy.

A list of village markets with days of their sitting is given in Appendix VI.

(*iv*) Co-operation in Retail and Wholesale Trade

Eight Regional Marketing Co-operative Societies are working in the districte at Sambalpur, Bargarh, Jharsuguda, Bamra, Deogarh, Sohela, Attabira, and Padampur. The first three societies were organised during 1957 with State Government's contribution of Rs. 25,000 to each of these societies towards share capital and Rs. 35,000 as loan for construction of godowns. The Regional Co-operative Society at Bargarh was also given a sum of Rs. 1,50,000 as share capital for establishment of a Rice-*cum*-Oil mill and Rs. 60,000 for installation of three rice hullers. The Regional Marketing Co-operative Society at Bamra and Deogarh were formed during 1961-62. The Bamra, Regional Marketing Co-operative Society has share capital of Rs. 2,27,023 including State Government share contribution of Rs. 1,25,000 and 46 members in June 1968. The Deogarh Regional Marketing Co-operative Society consisted of 96 members and owned a share capital of Rs. 2,27,390 (June 1968). The Regional Marketing Co-operative Society at Sohela, and Attabira consisted of 78 and 248 members and share capital of Rs. 1,85,780 and Rs. 1,78,935 respectively (June 1968).

Each of these societies has an area of 8 to 10 Panchayat Samiti comprising of 50 to 60 grain-gola co-operative Societies. All these primary societies are affiliated to Regional Marketing Co-operative Society and the latter in their turn affiliated to the Orissa State Co-operative Marketing Society. The Regional Marketing Co-operative Societies were mainly engaged in the distribution of chemical fertilisers to grain gola co-operative societies who supplied in their turn to the producers of their areas.

These Regional Marketing Co-operative Societies also undertake procurement of rice, and paddy under State Trading Scheme and also function as authorised dealers in cement, wheat, consumer goods, etc.

88. Merchants' Associations

(i) Northern Orissa Rice Millers' Association

The Association came to existence on the 26th December 1965. It was organised with 19 members. This Association collects and circulates statistics and other information relating to trade. The aim of the Association is to promote mutual help, friendly feeling and co-operation among mill-owners. It is a registered organisation with headquarters at Sambalpur.

(ii) Sambalpur Merchants' Association

Established on the 1st January 1959, the Association has a strength of 91 members. It stands for the safeguarding of their interests and works to foster amity among the business community. It is not affiliated to the Orissa Chamber of Commerce and Industry but it is recoginsed by it.

(iii) Bargarh Merchants' Association

The Association was formed in 1939. At present, it has about 175 members. Traders of Bargarh subdivision and of the adjoining areas of Balangir district are enrolled as members. It has its office at Bargarh and it seeks to safeguard the interests of merchants.

89. Weights and Measures

Metric system of weights has been enforced in Sambalpur municipal area from 1st October 1960. This system has also been made compulsory in all other parts of the district from 1st April, 1962 Prior to enforcement of this system seer weights were in use. In rural areas people use dry measures like 'Katha', 'Mana' and 'Tambi' in all transactions of rice, paddy and other foodgrains. These measures vary not only in nomenclature but also in capacities from area to area. Materials from which these measures are constructed also vary from place to place. In some parts brass measures are in use and in others measures prepared from earth. As a result of such differences in the use of dry measures there was ample scope for the trader to cheat the producers. With regard to seer weights also, difficulties were experienced by the traders in inter-state transactions as these weights vary from State to State, and from district to district. With a view to overcoming these difficulties which vitally concerned the traders and consumers, metric system of weights has been adopted as an all-India standard. This system has gained much popularity as it simplifies accounting. The consumers are also benefited by this system as these weights are thoroughly verified and checked by the Inspector of weights and measures before they are sent to the market. At the initial stage

some difficulties were experienced by the traders as well as the consumers about the use of this new system for want of proper understanding. Consequently, regular propaganda was conducted through the field staff of marketing department and publicity department by way of distribution of conversion tables, charts, pamphlets, etc. The system is well received by the people.

Before enforcement of metric system of weights and measures two series of units namely maunds, seers and tolas; and tons, hundred weights, pounds and ounces were generally recognised in the district. For mesuring lengths, the recognised units were mile, furlongs, yard, foot and inch.

The following table shows the old weights and measures and their equivalent in metric units :—

	Old Units	Metric equivalent
Weights ..	1 Tola	11·664 grams
	1 Seer	0·933 kg.
	1 Maund	0·37 quintal
	1 Ounce	28·35 grams
	1 Pound	0·454 kg.
	1 Hundred weight	50·802 kg.
	1 Ton	1·016 metric tonnes
	1 Gallon	4·546 litres
Length ..	1 Inch	0·025 metres
	1 Yard	0·914 metres
	1 Mile	1·609 kilometre
	1 Furlong	0·201 kilometre
	1 Square feet	0·09 Sq. metre
	1 Square yard	0·85 Sq. metre

In addition, the following weights and measures were commonly used in the district :—

Weights ..	Masa	8 Ratis
	Tola or Bhari	12 Masas
	Chhatak	5 Tolas
	Pau	¼ Seer
	Seer	80 Tolas or 4 paus
	Maund	40 Seers
	Pasuri	Roughly 3 seers
Length ..	Kande	Length of a span roughly 9 inches.
	Hat	Length of a cubit roughly 1½ feet.
	Gira	1/16 yard (in use mostly in cloth shops).

		Kos	..	Roughly 2 miles
		Dhape	..	Roughly ¼ Kos
Volume	...	Pau	..	Roughly ¼ seer
		Mana	..	Roughly ½
		Tambi	...	18 Chhataks to 20 Chhataks.
		Katha	..	Roughly 1 seer
Paddy measure	...	Tambi	..	18 Chhataks
		Khandi	..	20 Tambis
		Pudung	...	8 Khandis
		Katha	...	8 Tambis
		Pastama	...	8 Kutas

90. TIME:

Hours, minutes, and seconds are prevalent. Terms like "Pahantia pahar", or "Kukuda Daka", "Bhuashuni Gadhua" and "Halia Daharia" are also used by the common folk.

APPENDIX I

The following are the activities of Regional Marketing Co-operative Societies of the district

Year		No. of Societies	Members	Working capital	Purchases	Sales
1		2	3	4	5	6
				Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1962-63	..	6	512	7,69,000	14,29,515	14,38,376
1963-64	..	6	455	19.81,000	..	..
1964-65	..	6	500	16,06,000	..	..
1965-66	..	4	271	20,76,920	41,22,456	35,30,453
1966-67	..	4	410	10,18,878	58,18,670	50,32,386

APPENDIX II

In 196768, there were eight Regional Marketing Co-operative Societies. From this year the activities of Regional Marketing Co-operative Societies are increased. The activities of individual Co-operative Societies are given below :—

Location of R. M. C. Societies	Members	Share capital	Reserve Funds and others	Deposits	Borrowings	Purchases	Sales
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Deogarh ..	96	2,27,390	14,047	873	32,847	99,010	2,39,739
Bamra ..	46	2,27,023	452	4,234	86,304	2,32,586	7,27,757
Bargarh ..	287	4,30,731	1,746	82,121	86,01,145	77,95,860	75,97,357
Padampur ..	131	2,85,868	7,426	3,102	10,73,565	12,10,393	9,21,316
Sohela ..	78	1,85,780	104	2,937	1,84,843	1,27,563	1,65,661
Attabira ..	248	1,78,935	11,362	..	1,38,689	2,52,200	2,67,850
Jharsuguda ..	103	2,27,737	123	2,225	51,921	1,420	5,20,714
Sambalpur ..	103	1,72,363	461	1,212	79,483	2,79,224	55,50,414

APPENDIX III

The following table indicates the activities of Primary Land Mortgage Banks.

Year		No. of Banks	Members	Working capital Rs.	Loan advances Rs.	Loan collection Rs.
1		2	3	4	5	6
1962-63	..	1	65	5,32,000	3,64,000	7,000
1963-64	..	1	3,048	7,81,000	2,58,000	30,000
1964-65	..	2	3,994	11,14,000	4,03,000	89,000
1965-66	..	2	764	2,52,473	1,78,902	1,138
1966-67	..	4	4,455	4,95,306	2,50,892	7,266

APPENDIX IV

In 1967-68, there were five Primary Land Mortgage Banks. The activities of individual Banks are given below :—

Location of P. L. M. Banks	Members	Share capital	Statutory Reserve	Deposits	Borrowings	Loans advance	Loans collection
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
		Rs.		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Deogarh ..	548	17,812	..	685	1,78,918	1,65,464	2,455
Kuchinda ..	309	9,495	..	13,400	2,78,968	1,55,950	9,587
Bargarh ..	6,708	1,65,208	..	12,314	23,21,333	7,21,619	13,22,458
Sambalpur ..	1,497	42,558	210	1,980	5,62,040	1,50,783	13,687
Rairakhol ..	135	5,730	..	210	..	..	..

APPENDIX V

An idea can be formed as to the progress of the Sambalpur District Co-operative Central Bank from the following figures.

Year	1960-61	1961-62	1962-63	1963-64	1964-65	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Membership ..	903	917	967	701	716	413	611	428	429
2. Share Capital ..	3,44,600	12,35,800	16,55,375	19,08,000	20,72,000	24,44,000	26,29,000	29,10,000	32,46,000
3. Statutory Reserve Fund	1,42,763	2,26,587	2,26,587	2,54,000	3,29,000	3,92,000	6.12,000	6,66,000	7,31,000
4. Working Capital—									
(a) Share Capital ..	8,44,600	12,35,800	16,55,375	19,08,000	20,72,000	24,44,000	26,29,000	29.10,000	32,46,000
(b) Reserve Fund ..	1,42,763	2,26,587	2,26,587	2,54,000	3,29,000	3,92,000	6,12,000	6,66.000	7,31,000
(c) Other Funds ..	1,77,837	3,14,770	3,68.300	5,64.000	5,48,000	6,27,000	7,05,000	9,62,000	11,88,000
A. Total owned Capital ..	11,65,200	17,77,157	22,50.262	27,26,000	29,49,000	24,63,000	39,46,000	45,38,000	51,65,000
(a) Deposits ..	27,52,335	41,19,810	41,97,978	53,00,000	51,74,000	63,88,000	71,60,000	74,62,000	90.22,000
(b) Loans from Government and others.	21,02,630	38,07,385	62,83,193	53.44,000	53,98,000	92,36,000	78,73,000	38,69,000	62,97,000
B. Total borrowed Capital.	48,54,965	79,27,195	1,04,81,171	1,06,44.000	1,05,72,000	1,56,24,000	1,50,33,000	1,13,31,000	1,53,19,000
Total Working Capital ..	60,20,165	97,04,352	1,27,31,433	1,33,70,000	1,35,21,000	1,90,87,000	1,89,79,000	1,58,69,000	2,04,84,000
5. Total advances of loan	51,04,763	70,73,625	90,86,770	48,29,000	67,94,000	1,17,48,000	1,41,59,000	1,14,63,000	1,72,87,000

APPENDIX VI

LIST OF MARKETS

Name of Block	Name of Market	Day of sitting
1	2	3
1. Ambabhona ..	1. Bhukta ..	Wednesday
	2. Dungri ..	Saturday
	3. Lakhanpur ..	Sunday
	4. Uttam ..	Tuesday
2. Attabira ..	1. Attabira ..	Monday
	2. Gurbhaga ..	Thursday
	3. Kadobahal ..	Wednesday
	4. Kharmunda ..	Sunday
	5. Lastala ..	Wednesday
	6. Paharsirgida ..	Saturday
3. Bargarh ..	1. Chakerkend ..	Wednesday
	2. Katapali ..	Saturday
4. Barpali ..	1. Agalpur ..	Saturday
	2. Bagbadi ..	Tuesday/Saturday
	3. Barpali ..	Monday
	4. Bhatigaon ..	Wednesday
	5. Kumbhari ..	Wednesday
	6. Kusanpuri ..	Sunday
	7. Sarandapali ..	Thursday
	8. Satalama ..	Sunday
5. Barakot ..	1. Balita ..	Sunday
	2. Ballam ..	Monday
	3. Singasal ..	Wednesday
6. Bhatli ..	1. Bhatli ..	Monday
	2. Chadeigaon ..	Saturday
	3. Kelendapali ..	Thursday
	4. Mulbar ..	Tuesday
	5. Sulsulia ..	Tuesday
	6. Urduna ..	Sunday
7. Bheran ..	1. Bheran(Bhedan)	Saturday
	2. Rusuda (sits at Hatgaon).	Tuesday

Name of Block	Name of Market	Day of sitting
1	2	3
8. Bijepur ..	1. Badbrahmani ..	Sunday
	2. Bijepur ..	Sunday
	3. Kharmunda ..	Wednesday
	4. Leumunda ..	Tuesday
	5. Pahandi ..	Saturday
	6. Talpadar ..	Wednesday
9. Deogarh (Rjamal) ..	1. Deogarh Town ..	Daily
	2. Ganganan ..	Wednesday
	3. Kansar ..	Saturday
	4. Lamura ..	Friday
	5. Riamal ..	Wednesday
	6. Tinkbir ..	Sunday
10. Gaisilat ..	1. Gaisilat ..	Sunday
	2. Jagalput ..	Wednesday
	3. Kandakhai ..	Friday
	4. Sardhapali ..	Friday
11. Gobindpur ..	1. Garpos .	Thursday/Sunday
	2. Gobindpur ..	Monday
	3. Jarabaga .	Sunday
	4. Mahulpali ..	Tuesday
	5. Rangiatikra ..	Wednesday
12. Jamunkira (Jamankira)	1. Badarama ..	Thursday
	2. Jamunkira ..	Friday
	3. Kenadhipa ..	Thursday
	4. Pukuda ..	Monday
	5. Rengalbena .	Sunday
13. Jharbandh ...	1. Amthi ..	Thursday
	2. Dava ..	Tuesday
	3. Dungripali ..	Monday
	4. Jagdalpur ..	Thursday
	5. Jharbandh ..	Wednesday
14. Jharsuguda ..	1. Baghiaberna .	Friday
	2. Brajarajnagar ..	Sunday
	3. Kherual ..	Sunday
	4. Rajpur ..	Monday

Name of Bloek	Name of Market	Day of sitting
1	2	3
	5. Rampur Colliery	Sunday
	6. Sripura ..	Thursday
	7. Telenpali ..	Monday
	8. Talpatia ..	Saturday
15. Kuchinda ...	1. Bauriguda ...	Thursday
	2. Gochara ..	Thursday
	3. Khandokata ..	Monday
	4. Kuchinda ..	Friday
	5. Kusumi ..	Monday
	6. Kuturachuan ..	Saturday
16. Laikera-I ...	1. Bhatlaida ...	Monday
	2. Hudukudihi ..	Wednesday
	3. Laikera ...	Wednesday
	4. Mudrajore ..	Saturday
	5. Sahaspur ..	Friday
17. Laikera-II (Kirmira) ...	1. Arda ..	Friday
	2. Bagdehi ...	Thursday
	3. Jharmunda ...	Sunday
	4. Kirmira ...	Tuesday
	5. Sulahi ...	Wednesday
18. Laikera-III (Kolabira)	1. Kolabira ...	Monday
	2. Malidhihi ...	Sunday
	3. Raghunathpali ..	Thursday

Name of Block	Name of Market	Day of sitting
1	2	3
19. Lakhanpur ..	1. Bagamunda ..	Tuesday
	2. Chantipali ..	Tuesday
	3. Charpali ..	Monday
	4. Jamugaon ..	Sunday
	5. Kadamdihi ..	Thursday
	6. Karpabahal ..	Thursday
	7. Kudaloi ..	Wednesday
	8. Lakhanpur ..	Friday
	9. Nua-Adhapara	Sunday
	10. Remeda ..	Monday
	11. Rengali ..	Friday
	12. Samada ..	Saturday
	13. Sunari ..	Sunday
	14. Tilia ..	Friday
20. Naikul ..	1. Gogua (Gogwa)	Friday
	2. Goudsuguda ..	Saturday
	3. Palsand (or Pabana).	Saturday
21. Naktideul ..	1. Khandiamunda	Thursday
	2. Naktideul ..	Monday
22. Padampur ..	1. Burkel (Barikel)	Wednesday
	2. Jamla ..	Monday
	3. Kansar ..	Sunday
	4. Kansingha ..	Friday

Name of Block	Name of Market	Day of sitting
1	2	3
	5. Melchhamunda ..	Sunday
	6. Padampur ..	Saturday
	7. Sargibahal ..	Friday
	8. Siletpali ..	Tuesday
23. Paikmal ..	1. Bartunda ..	Tuesday
	2. Bhubaneswarpur	Wednesday
	3. Bukramunda ..	Wednesday
	4. Lakhmara ..	Sunday
	5. Mandosila ..	Sunday
	6. Munikel ..	Friday
	7. Paikmal ..	Saturday
	8. Palsada ..	Friday
	9. Temerimal ..	Wednesday
24. Rairakhol ..	1. Kadaligarh ..	Monday
	2. Rampur ..	Saturday
25. Rengali ..	1. Katarbaga ..	Sunday
	2. Khadiapali .. (Lapanga station)	Monday
	3. Khinda ..	Tuesday
	4. Laira (Laida) ..	Tuesday
	5. Lapanga ..	Friday
	6. Rengali ..	Thursday
	7. Rengaloi ..	Saturday
	8. Tamparkella ..	Thursday

Name of Block	Name of Market	Day of sitting
1	2	3
26. Sambalpur-I (Dhankauda) ..	1. Sason ..	Wednesday
	2. Kilasama ..	Thursday
	3. Balabaspur ...	Saturday
	4. Chiplima ..	Sunday
27. Sambalpur-II (Manesar). ..	1. Bhikampur ..	Friday
	2. Dhama ..	Saturday
	3. Manesar (Maneswar). ..	Monday
	4. Sahaspur ..	Tuesday
	5. Sangramal ...	Wednesday
	6. Themra ..	Saturday
28. Sambalpur-III (Jujomura). ..	1. Badsahir ..	Saturday
	2. Jujomura ...	Tuesday
	3. Kabrapali ..	Thursday
	4. Keshapali ..	Friday
	5. Pariabahal (Padiabahal). ...	Tuesday
29. Sohela ..	1. Damapali ..	Wednesday
	2. Ghens ..	Thursday
	3. Loharchatti ..	Wednesday
	4. Sarkanda ..	Sunday
	5. Sohela ..	Saturday

CHAPTER VII

COMMUNICATIONS

91. Old time trade routes

During early times, some important roads connecting northern India with the Deccan were passing through the present district of Sambalpur. The Allahabad pillar inscription of Samudra Gupta dated about 350 A. D. reveals that a road from Kausambi passed through south Kosala (comprising modern Sambalpur, Raipur and Bilaspur districts), Korala (modern Bolangir district), and Mahakantara (modern Kalahandi and Koraput districts), to coastal tract of Kalinga.

In 1361 when Firoz Shah invaded Orissa he had a Kheda for elephants at Padmatala in ex-Baudh State and proceeded to Sambalpur from where he took a route through hills and forests about which Paramananda Acharya (Padma Shree) has written a note (published in the Orissa Historical Research Journal, Vol. XIII, No. 3). quoted in Appendix I to this chapter.

During the medieval period, kings of Kalachuri and Panduvamsi ruling families are known to have marched from Central India through Chhatisgarh and Sambalpur regions up to the coastal territories of Orissa. When the Chauhans got possession of Sambalpur, they started improving the condition of communications in their kingdom. It is known from the Kosalananda[1] that there were some good roads in the kingdom of Baliar Singh which comprised 18 Garhs (feudatory States). Four important roads connecting Cuttack with Nagpur passed through the Chauhan Kingdom of Sambalpur. One of these roads was followed by T. Motte in 1766 A. D. when he was sent by Lord Clive to Sambalpur for trade in diamond. Motte passed through Cuttack, Banki, Baidyeswar, Kantilo, Barmul, to Baudh wherefrom he crossed the river Mahanadi and proceeded to Sambalpur via Dhama and Manesar (Maneswar) The second route was followed by Leckie in 1790 A. D. He came from Cuttack to Baudh through the route travelled by Motte but without crossing the Mahanadi, he passed up to Sonepur, and through Lachhinpur, Mursund, Salebhata, Sarangpur and Borasambar, went to Raipur and ultimately reached Nagpur through Ratanpur. A third route which connected Cuttack with Sonepur crossed the river Mahanadi a little above its confluence with the Tel and ran to Bhojpur leaving Sambalpur town on the left and passing through Chotanagpur, Amarkantak and Bundelkhand, turned towards Nagpur. The route was suggested by Madhoji Bhonsla in one of his letters to the Governor of Bengal [2]. The

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1. *Kosalananda Mahakavyam* written in Sanskrit by Gangadhar Misra (17th Century A. D.)

2. Calendar of Persian Correspondence Vol. V. No. 1088

fourth route popularly called the Jagannath road is said to have been built by Rani Ahalya Bai (1755–1795). This route came from Raipur to Sohela and through Barpali, Rampur and Binka, ran to Sonepur, after which it took the usual course, via Baudh. Barmul, Kantilo, Padma s bati, Baidyeswar, and Banki, to Cuttack and thence to Puri.

J. B. Fuller in his "Note on the Land Revenue Settlement of the Central Provinces (1886)" mentions one important trade route from Ganjam to Sambalpur via Sonepur and Binka which was known as the salt route. In the first half of the 19th century there was a mail route from Calcutta to Bombay about which King [1] wrote :—

> "........The overland mail from Calcutta to Bombay passed through Sambalpur onto Raipur, and this road (though it was infested by rebels, who as Mutiny records show, burned some of the *dak* houses) was presumably kept at the time in a state of repair befitting a main *dak* road. With the advent of the railway, the road lost its importance as a mail route, and in 1874 the Settlement Officer reported that the district had no road worthy of the name".

In the last decade of 19th century, communications in the district developed considerably. The main line of the then Bengal-Nagpur (Now South-Eastern) Railway extended through the north of the Sambalpur subdivision in 1890, and a branch line from Jharsuguda to the town of Sambalpur was opened in 1893. Much was also done to construct new roads and improve old roads. In 1909, the district which then comprised Sambalpur and Bargarh subdivisions had 238·28 Kms. (148 miles) of roads of which 46·69 Kms. (29 miles) were metalled. Of these, mention may be made of Sambalpur-Raipur road of which 82·11 Kms. (51 miles), Sambalpur-Cuttack road of which 41 Kms. (25½ miles), Sambalpur-Bargarh–Sonepur road of which 83·72 Kms. (52 miles), and Bargarh-B langir road of which 28 98 Kms. (18 miles) were in the district, as originally composed.

In 1907–08 the ex-State of Bamra, which now forms a part of the district since 1948, had also some good roads. There was a road from the Bamra Railway Station on the then Bengai-Nagpur (now South-Eastern) Railway line to Deogarh, the headquarters of Bamra State, covering about 93·38 Kms. (58 miles) in length. From Deogarh to Balam, there was a good road 17·71 Kms. (11 miles) in length, on which there was one Steel girder bridge.

The old Sambalpur-Midnapur road also traversed the ex-State of Bamra. Besides, there were a number of fair-weather village roads.

1. Sambalpur District Gazetteer (1932) by F. C. King-P. 184

In the first decade of the twentieth century, the ex-State of Rairakhol, which also forms a part of the present district since 1948, had some excellent roads. The Cuttack–Sambalpur road passed through the ex-State. There were also good roads from Rampur, the headquarters of Rairakhol, to Bamra towards north and to the border of Sonepur towards south.

In the second decade of the present century, motor cars and motor cycles were introduced leading to improvement of roads. In 1931, the district (excluding the ex-States of Bamra and Rairakhol) had 185·15 Kms. (115 miles) of metalled and 423·43 Kms. (263 miles) of unmetalled roads. The Public Works Department was maintaining 161 Kms. (100 miles) of metalled and 66·01 Kms. (41 miles) of unmetalled roads. The upkeep of the less important roads was entrusted to the District Council which managed 24·15 Kms. (15 miles) of metalled road. In addition, there was a net-work of village roads and cart tracks about which King [1] wrote in 1931.

> "These roads are maintained by the villagers under the *mukaddam* rules, and thanks to these roads, there are but few villages in the district which are not accessible by motor car during the dry season."

In 1931, the Deputy Commissioner (Shri Nilamani Senapati, I. C. S.) was able to motor to Vikramkhol by improving the village roads called Dharsas. It brought to light the pre-historic writings which had remained hidden for centuries.

All the main roads of the district were bridged throughout except the Sambalpur-Raipur road in which the Mahanadi crossing at Sambalpur remained unbridged during the rains ; but was provided with a pontoon bridge from November to June. A rail-*cum*-road bridge over the Mahanadi was constructed in 1951.

The road leading to Raipur continued to be the principal road of the district. Next in importance came the Sambalpur–Cuttack road which was 40·25 Kms. (25 miles) in length in the district. The other important roads were (*a*) Sonepur road 33·81 Kms. (21 miles), (*b*) Bargarh-Bolangir road 28·98 Kms. (18 miles), (*c*) Sambalpur-Jharsuguda-Bhasma road and (*d*) Bamra road 25·76 Kms. (16 miles) in the old district.

Among other roads may be mentioned the Bargarh-Bijepur-Padampur road, which carried a very heavy cart traffic from Borasambar and Patna ex-State, the Sohela-Barpali road, the Bilaspur road via Bhagra and Mura

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1 Sambalpur District Gazetteer (1932) by F. C. King-P. 186

on the east bank of river Mahanadi and the Old Ranchi Road leading through Parmanpur, Gumlai (Gumloi), Jhankerpali and Laira (Laida) to Suramal, after which it became a mere track.

Communications in the district have developed considerably in the two decades following Independence. Most of the important roads are bridged and metalled, and well maintained throughout. New roads have also been added and new railway lines constructed.

92. Road Transport

The Public Works Department maintains 1,443·97 Kms. (894 miles 5½ furlongs) of road in the district which include 309·52 Kms. (192 miles and 2 furlongs) of National Highway, 222·48 Kms. (138 miles 1½ furlongs) of State Highways, 439·09 Kms. (272 miles 6 furlongs) of Major District Roads, and 472·11 Kms. (292 miles) of other district roads. The roads maintained by different Panchayat Samitis, Municipalities and Forest Department come to about 2,329 Kms., 292 Kms. and 880 Kms. (1,447, 182 and 550 miles) respectively.

(i) National Highways

(*a*) National Highway No. 42

This is the old Cuttack-Sambalpur Road which enters the district at 124 3/8th mile from Cuttack and passes through Rampur (Rairakhol), Charmal, Jujomura, Mundher and Sambalpur town. This road, which is 80·70 Kms. (50 miles 1 furlong in length and 38′ in width) in the district, is metalled, blacktopped and bridged throughout. It is a valuable trade route, being a much more direct route to Cuttack and Angul than the circuitous rail route through Kharagpur. This important road was constructed in the first decade of twentieth century and is presently maintained out of the funds allotted for the purpose by the Central Government.

Its principal feeder roads are the Rampur-Kiakata Road (Major District Road 23), Deogarh–Rairakhol Road (Major District Road 23), Manesar (Maneswar)-Kolpara Road (Major District Road 24) and Sambalpur-Sonepur Road (Major District Road 24).

There are Public Works Department inspection bungalows at Mandher, Jujomura and Charmal, besides a rest shed at Rampur (Rairakhol).

(*b*) National Highway No. 6

The principal road of the district is the National Highway No. 6 which forms part of the old Great Eastern Road (later Sambalpur-Raipur Road), which is the main trunk route from Bombay through Nagpur, Raipur, and Sambalpur to Calcutta entering the district at Loharchatti, 182·73 Kms. (113½ miles) from Nagpur. This road traverses Bargarh, Sambalpur,

and Deogarh Subdivisions and finally leaves for Pal-Lahara Subdivision of Dhenkanal district at 411·55 Kms. (255 5/8th miles). The road, which passes through Loharchatti, Sohela, Bargarh, Attabira, Burla, Sambalpur, Kolpara, Pariabahal (Padiabahal), Nildungri, Gourpali, Badarama Jamunkira (Jamankira), Deogarh, Balam, Balita, Golabandh and Thianal, is 228·82 Kms. (142 1/8 miles) in length in the district and 32' in width. It is blacktopped from 182 73 Kms. to 362 25 Kms. (113½th to 225th mile Loharchatti to Deogarh), metalled from 362 25 Kms. to 392·84 Kms. (225th mile to 244th mile) and unmetalled from 392·84 Kms. to 411·55 Kms. (244th to 255 5/8th mile). This is an all-weather road up to Deogarh and has causeways at 312·95 Kms. and 214·95 Kms. (194 3/8th mile and 195 5/8th mile). Some of its important feeder roads are Sohela-Nawapara Road (State High Way No. 3), Sohela-Barpali Road, Ambabhona-Sambalpur Road (Major District road No. 33), Bargarh-Dungri Road, Gurbhaga (Godbhaga)-Turum Road, Sambalpur-Hirakud Road, Sambalpur-Jharsuguda Road (State Highway No. 10), Sambalpur Sindurpank-Samasingha Road, Minesar (Maneswar)-Kolpara Road, Deogarh-Bamra Road, Deogarh-Rairakhol Road, Naikul-Talcher border Road and Balita-Bonai Road.

There are inspection bungalows at Sohela, Bargarh, Attabira, Sambalpur, Deogarh, Balam and Balita, besides rest sheds at Loharchatti, Sohela, Bargarh, Sambalpur and Deogarh, and Circuit House at Sambalpur. The authority of Hirakud Dam Project also maintain two well-equipped guest-houses at Burla. One of them standing on a hill comanding the Hirakud lake is called Ashok Nivas.

The road is maintained out of the funds allotted for the purpose by the Central Government.

II) State Highways

a) State High Way No. 2 (Bargarh-Balangir-Borigumma Road)

This road takes off from the National Highway No. 6 just beyond the Jira Bridge at Bargarh and runs for 25 miles in the district. The road is under the control of State Public Works Department. It is blacktopped and bridged throughout. This road passes through Sarsara, Barpali, Sujia and Charmunda in the district. There is an Inspection Bungalow at Barpali. There is a rest-shed at Charmunda. Some of its feeder roads are Sohela-Barpali-Binka Road at 18·91 Kms. (11 6/8th mile), Bijepur-Charmunda Road at 37·83 Kms. (23½ miles) and Katapali-Barpali-Kumbhari Road at 18·91 Kms. (11 6/8th mile).

(b) State High Way No. 3 (Sohela-Nawapara Road)

Starting from National Highway No. 6 at Sohela, this road leave the district at 0·30 Kms. (1½ furlong) ahead of its 101·43 Kms. (63rd mile) and then proceeds to Nawapara in Kalahandi district. The road passes

through Ghens, Sonamal, Melchhamunda, Dublabahal, Padampur, Burkel, Palsada, Jharmunda, Paikmal and Jamseth. The length of the road in the district is 101·69 Kms. (63 miles and 1½ furlong). Maintained by the State Public Works Department, this is a metalled and all-weather State Highway. There are Inspection Bungalows at Padampur and Paikmal. From Paikmal up to which a fair-weather road existed before 1930, the State Highway follows village roads by improving which it was possible to motor to Nawapara in 1934.

Some of its feeder roads are (*a*) Dublabahal-Bijepur Road, (*b*) Padampur–Gaisilat road, (*c*) Padampur–Patnagarh Road, (*d*) Paikmal-Lanjidosha Road and (*e*) Narsinghnath–Paikmal Road.

(*c*) State Highway No. 10 (Sambalpur-Jharsuguda Road)

Starting from Sambalpur, this State Highway runs to Sundargarh district via, Ainthapali, Sason, Kilasama, Rengali, Jharsuguda and Talpatia of Sambalpur district. This road, of which 62·79 Kms. (39 miles) fall in the district, is blacktopped and bridged throughout. There are Inspection Bungalows at Rengali and Jharsuguda.

Some of its feeder roads are Jharsuguda-Kolabira Road, Samasingha-Bagdihi Road, and Jharsuguda-Brajarajnagar-Belpahar-Kanaktura Road; Besides, a portion of Barakot-Derjin road (which is also a State Highway) passes through this district. This is a fair-weather road and its length in the district is 17·71 Kms. (11 miles).

(iii) Major District Roads

(*a*) Rampur (Rairakhol)-Kiakata Road (Major District Road No. 23)

Starting from National Highway No. 42 at Rampur (Rairakhol), this Major District Road runs for 26·76 Kms. (16 5/8 miles) in the district. Sixteen miles of this fair-weather road is metalled, 1 Km. (5/8 mile) being black-topped.

(*b*) Deogarh-Rairakhol Road (Major District Road No. 23)

This fair-weather road, constructed before the 2nd World War and in length 76·27 Kms. (47 3/8 miles), starts at Deogarh and meets the National Highway No. 42 at Rampur (Rairakhol). This is a dust road and it passes through Purunapani, Riamal, Telimunda, Naktideul, Doincha and meets N. H. No. 42 at Rampur (Rairakhol).

(*c*) Sambalpur-Sonepur Road (Major District Road No. 24)

This road leads from Sambalpur along the eastern bank of the Mahanadi through Golabandh, Bargaon, Dhama and Larasara, and leaves the district at the 35·42 Kms. (22nd mile), a short distance beyond Larasara. The length of the road inside the district is 81·50 Kms. (50 5/8 miles). This is an unmetalled and fair-weather road. There is an Inspection Bungalow at Dhama and a Forest Bungalow at Larasara.

(*d*) TELIMUNDA-SARAPAL ROAD (Major District Road No. 19)

This unmetalled and fair-weather road starts from Telimunda on Major District Road No. 23 and terminates at Sarapal. The road, in length 32·40 Kms. (20½ miles), was constructed before the 2nd World War. It passes through Chhatabar, Katasarghat and Kundaigola.

(*e*) BARGARH-BHATLI-AMBABHONA ROAD (Major District Road No. 33)

In length 35·42 Kms. (22 miles), this fair-weather road starts from National Highway No. 6 at Bargarh and passes through Charaigaon (Chadeigaon), Bhatli, Kesaipali, Mundkati and reaches Ambabhona. There is a rest shed at Ambabhona.

(*f*) PADAMPUR-JAGDAIPUR ROAD (Major Disirict Road No. 36)

This road starts from State Highway No. 3 at Padampur and proceeds for 26·56 Kms. (16½ miles) in the district, after which it passes to Madhya Pradesh to join the National Highway No. 6. This is a dust road, motorable in dry seasons, The road passes through Burkel, Dhumabhata and Lakhmara. There is an Inspection Bungalow at Padampur.

(*g*) PADAMPUR-PATNAGARH ROAD (Major Dittrict Road No. 36)

This is an unmetalled and fair-weather road. It starts from State Highway No. 3 at Padampur and proceeds towards Patnagarh of Balanigr district. The portion of the road lying in the district is 16·50 Kms. (10¼ miles).

(*h*) SOHELA-BARPALI-BINKA ROAD (Major District Road No. 39)

It is a link road between National Highway No. 6 and State Highway No. 2. It starts from Sohela and ends at Barpali. This unmetalled road is 33 Kms. (20½ miles) in length. There are Inspection Bungalows at Barpali and Sohela.

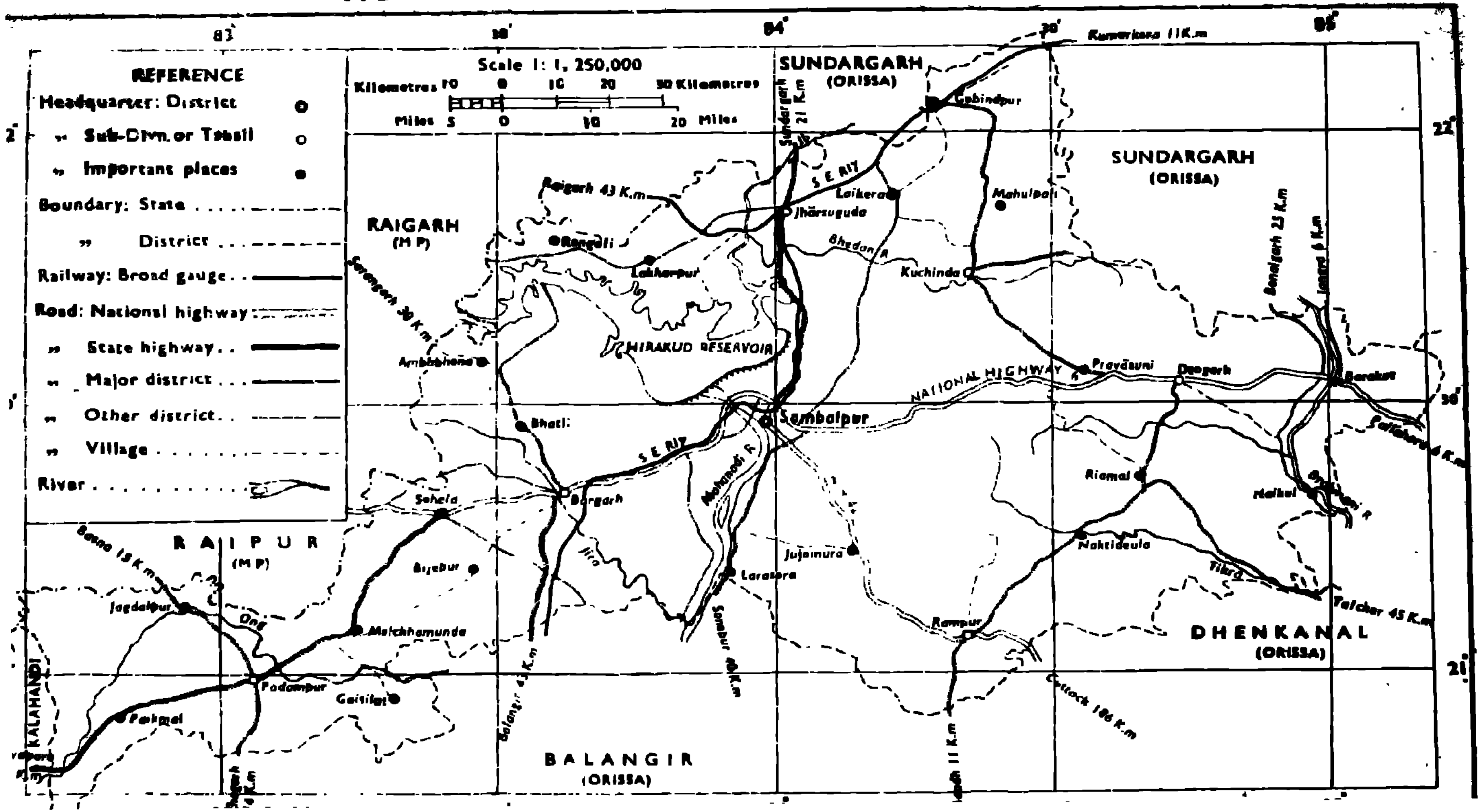
(*i*) DEOGARH-BAMRA ROAD (Majcr District Road No. 31)

This all-weather road starts from National Highway No. 6 at Deogarh and proceeds up to Bamra Railway Station where it connects Kirai-Bamra road and Gariamal-Bamra road of Sundargarh district. This road is black-topped and is 87·74 Kms. (54½ miles) in length. It passes through Bhojpur, Kuchinda, Kesaibahal and Rangiatikra. There are Inspection Bungalows at Sirid (Siridi), Kesaibahal and Gobindpur and a Revenue rest shed at Kuchinda.

(*j*) KUCHINDA-KUSUMI ROAD (Major District Road No. 26 (a)

The road, 22·94 Kms. (14¼ miles) in length, is moorum-surfaced and motorable in dry season. This is the shortest route between two civil subdivisions viz : Kuchinda and Bonai. The road connects Revenue road at Kusumi which connects Bijakuli on Barakot-Bonai road. There is a rest shed at Kusumi.

ROAD MAP OF SAMBALPUR DISTRICT



(iv) Other district roads

The statement given below indicates the name, mileage and condition of the other district roads:—

Name of the road	Length	Condition	Whether fair-weather or all-weather
1. Gurbhaga-Turum road.	38·64 Kms. (24 miles)	22·54 Kms. (14 miles) metalled.	Fair-weather
2. Balita-Bamur-Talcher border road.	41·86 Kms. (26 miles)	Unmetalled	Ditto
3. Sambalpur-Gunderpur road.	5·63 Kms. (3½ miles)	2·41 Kms. (1½ miles) metalled	Ditto
4. Bargarh-Bijepur road.	25·76 Kms. (16 miles)	metalled	Ditto
5. Sambalpur-Hirakud road.	7·25 Kms. (4½ miles)	4·03 Kms. (2½ miles) metalled	Black-topped one mile.
6. Samarbaga-Lakhanpur road.	25·76 Kms. (16 miles)	Unmetalled	Fair-weather
7. Sindurpank-Samasingha road.	39·64 Kms. (24 5/8 miles)	9·66 Kms. (6 miles) metalled	Ditto
8. Jharsuguda-Kolabira road.	17·71 Kms. (11 miles)	Earthen and moorum.	Ditto
9. Belpahar-Kanaktura road.	51·52 Kms. (32 miles)	..	Ditto
10. Samasingha-Laikera-Bagdihi road.	28·98 Kms. (18 miles)	...	Ditto
11. Kolabira-Samasingha road.	4·83 Kms. (3 miles)	Moorum	Ditto

Name of the road	Length	Condition	Whether fair-weather or all weather
12. Jharsuguda-Belpahar road.	20·32 Kms. (12 5/8 miles)	9·66Kms. (6 miles) metalled and 10·66 Kms. (6 5/8 miles) moorum.	Fair-weather
13. Gariamal-Bamra road (from Turkijore to Bamra).	7·25 Kms. (4½ miles)	Moorum	Ditto
14. Bhojpur-Jamunkira (Jamankira)road.	14·49 Kms. (9 miles)	Earthen and moorum.	Ditto
15. Patrapali-Jhirlapali road.	19·32 Kms. (12 miles)	Earthen and moorum.	Ditto
16. Kusumi-Barabahal-Gudguda road.	12·88 Kms. (8 miles)	Ditto	Ditto
17. Bamra-Garpos road	20·93 Kms. (13 miles)	Ditto	Ditto
18. Jharsuguda-Arda-Bagdihi road.	22·54 Kms. (14 miles)	Ditto	Ditto
19. Laikera-Gobindpur (Bamra R. S.) road.	27·37 Kms. (17 miles)	Ditto	Ditto
20. Brajarajnagar-Tilia road.	30·59 Kms. (19 miles)	Ditto	Ditto
21. Brajarajnagar-to connect Jharsuguda-Belpahar road.	6·84 Kms. (4¼ miles)	Ditto	Ditto

(v) Revenue Roads

The Revenue Department was maintaining 754·09 Km. (469 miles) of road in Sambalpur, 463·68 Km. (288 miles) in Bargarh (including Padampur), 443·55 Km. (275½ miles) in Deogarh, 294·43 Km. (183½ miles) in Rairakhol, and 371·91 Km. (231 miles) in Kuchinda Subdivisions. The roads, most of which are dust roads, were transferred to Panchayat Samitis in November 1963 for maintenance. The mileage of roads so transferred to different Panchayat Samitis is at Appendix II.

(vi) Roads maintained by municipal bodies

The Municipalities and Notified Area Councils maintain about 292 Km. of roads of various types. The details are given in the statement below:—

Name of Municipality/ N. A. C.	Types of road (in Km.) Black-topped	Cement con-crete	Meta-lled	Ear-then	Other roads	Total Length (in Km.)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Sambalpur ..	15·49	5·73	37·33	24·71	2·61	85·33
2. Jharsuguda ..	..	..	14·49	4·83	6·44	25·76
3. Deogarh ..	2·41	..	8·05	..	13·69	24·15
4. Bargarh ..	5·38	0·30	11·57	5·09	7·14	29·48
5. Hirakud ..	12·00	...	..	..	15·00	27·00
6. Bural ..	24·15	1·61	16·10	20·93	11·27	74·06
7. Padampur ..	..	..	3·22	22·54	..	25·76
Total ..	59·43	7·64	90·76	77·56	56·15	291·54

(vii) Village Roads

Under the old revenue system prevailing before the abolition of the Gaontiahi system, village roads called Dharsas were the responsibility of the village community led by the village headman called Makaddam. Under this system, the Deputy Commissioner could get all village roads repaired. After the abolition of the Gaontias, the Makaddam ceased to exist and the responsibility of the village community has been transferred to the Panchayat under the Grama Panchayat Act. In practice, village roads are neglected. It is no longer possible for the Deputy Commissioner to issue an order to the Makaddam and the Dharsa is repaired.

In 1968-69, there were roads numbering 270 under the Grama Panchayats having a total mileage of 1,098 (1,767·78 Kms.) and the amount sanctioned for maintenance of these roads was Rs. 1,66,896.

(*viii*) **Roads maintained by Forest Department**

The Forest Department also maintains about 880 Kms. of forest roads in the district. Almost all these roads are either dust roads or moorum-topped. They are utilised mainly for transportation of forest produce. They form important means for touring officers. Important forest roads are given at Appendix III.

93. Vehicles and Conveyance

There were in 1931, 65 motor cars and 57 trucks as against 27 and 1 in 1921. In 1957-58, total number of vehicles registered in this district stood at 3,074. It included 726 cars, 304 jeeps, 461 motor cycles, 165 buses, 1,938 goods vehicles, and 76 motor vehicles. The number which is increasing yearly came to 3,355 (including 561 cars, 779 jeeps, 214 motor cycles, 109 buses, 1,616 goods vehicles and 73 other vehicles) in 1960-61. Besides, 625 vehicles of different categories registered in other districts or outside the State were also plying in the district during 1960-61.

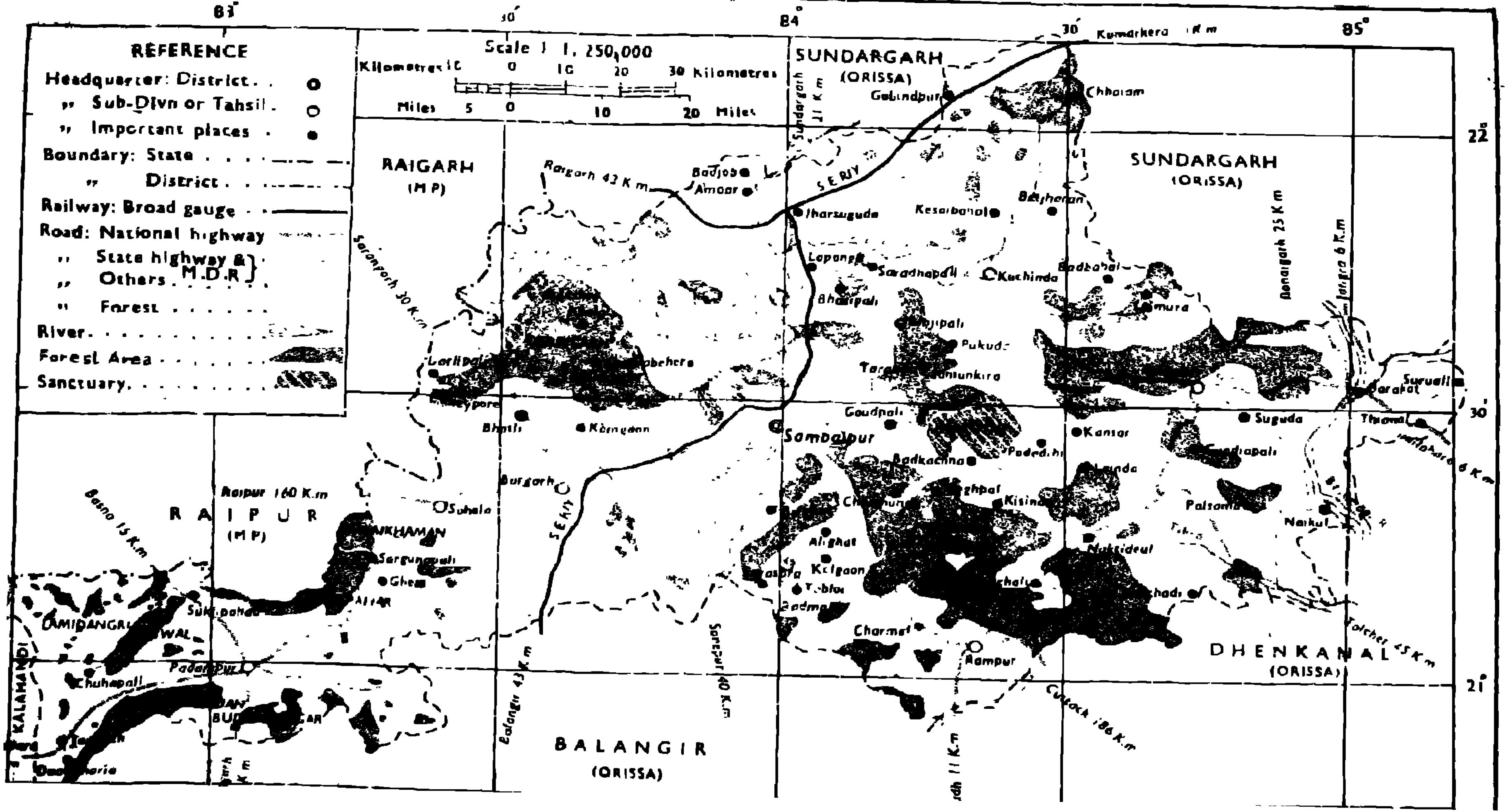
In 1969, 2,378 vehicles were operating which include 611 motor cycles, 93 taxi cars, and contract carriages, 92 stage carriages, 73 goods vehicles (private carriers), 492 goods vehicles (public carriers), 907 jeeps and private cars, and 110 other vehicles.

Motor vehicles are generally seen in urban areas. In rural areas, bullock carts and cycles are the main conveyance. Cycle rickshaws are seen in both rural and urban areas. They are rapidly increasing in number.

The statement given below shows number of cycles, cycle-rickshaws and bullock carts registered in different municipalities of the district in 1962-63 and 1967-68.

Name of Municipality			Cycle	Cycle-rickshaw	Bullock Cart
1			2	3	4
1. Bargarh	(1962-63)	..	303	59	34
	(1967-68)	..	669	73	12
2. Deogarh	(1962-63)	..	280	1	..
	(1967-68)	..	338	2	89
3. Jharsuguda	(1962-63)	..	1,080	70	..
	(1967-68)	..	653	83	150
4. Sambalpur	(1962-63)	..	1,500	700	150
	(1967-68)	..	2,408	2,0·2	22

FOREST & FOREST ROAD MAP OF SAMBALPUR DISTRICT



4. Public Transport

Most of the routes of the district are under the control of State Transport Department. There are three units of the State Transport Organisation in the district namely, Sambalpur, Deogarh and Bargarh. The Sambalpur and Deogarh units are under Sambalpur Zone and the Bargarh units is under Balangir Zone. Both the Zones are headed by respective Transport Managers and the units by Assistant Transport Managers. The overall control is vested with the Transport Controller, Orissa.

The statement given below shows names of routes, their length in Kilometre and number of trips plying in the district (as in 1967-68) :

Name of the route		Length in Kilometre	No of trips daily
1		2	3
(1) SAMBALPUR ZONE			
Sambalpur Unit			
Sambalpur–Kiakata	..	96	1
Sambalpur–Balangir	..	138	1 (Another bus also plies daily from Balangir).
Sambalpur–Cuttack	..	292	1
Sambalpur–Bhubaneswar	..	321	1
Sambalpur–Meramundali	..	184	2
Sambalpur–Chiplima	..	37	2
Sambalpur-Subalia (Via–Dharmasala and Birmaharajpur).	..	112	2
Sambalpur–Kuchinda (Via Tilaibani)	..	118	1
Sambalpur–Turum	.	70	2
Sambalpur–Dhama	..	32	1

Name of the route	Length in Kilometre	No. of trips daily
1	2	3
Jeypore–Sambalpur (Koraput Zone) ..	408	1
Sambalpur-Hirakud ..	16	5
Sambalpur-Burla ..	16	5
Sambalpur–Raipur (inter–State)	280	1
Sambalpur–Sarangarh (,,) ..	168	1
Deogarh Unit		
Deogarh-Talcher (via Pal-Lahara)	133	1
Deogarh-Bargaon ..	114	1
Deogarh-Rourkela (via Lahunipada)	156	1
Rourkela-Deogarh via Bonai .. (Rourkela Zone).	155	1 Fair-weather
Deogarh-Angul ..	121	1
Deogarh-Talcher (via Naikul)..	112	1
Deogarh–Sambalpur ..	96	2
Deogarh–Thianal ..	50	1
Deogarh–Bamra ..	102	1
(2) BARGARH UNIT (UNDER BALANGIR ZONE)		
Bargarh–Khariar ..	232	1
Bargarh–Khariar Road ..	155	1
Bargarh–Rampur ..	43	1 (Barpali to Rampur fair-weather).
Bargarh–Laudidhara Via Padampur ..	115	1 (Up to Padur fair-weather).
Bargarh–Sonepur (via Balangir)	125	1

Name of the route	Length in Kilometre	No. of trips daily
1	2	3
Bargarh–Sonepur (via Binka) ..	112	1 Fair-weather
Bargarh–Balangir ..	77	1
Bargarh–Jharsuguda ..	..	1
Bargarh-Gaisilat (via Nuagaon)	75	1 Up to Nuagaon fair weather.
Bargarh–Loharchatti ..	40	1
Bargarh–Laumunda ..	51	1 All-weather up to 34 kms. (Pahandi).
Bargarh–Ruchida (via Ambabhona). ..	53	2
Bargarh–Turum (via Deshbhatli). ..	69	1 (Deshbhatli to Turum fair-weather)
Bargarh–Sambalpur (via–Burla)	61	4
Balangir–Jharsuguda (Balangir Zone). ..	187	1
Balangir–Padampur (Balangir zone) via Patnagarh.	81	1
Bargarh–Dava (via Paikmal) ..	149	1 (Paikmal to Dava fair-weather).
Bargarh–Padampur (via Bijepur)	80	1 (Pahandi to Padampur fair-weather).

Besides, there are inter-district buses like Rourkela-Cuttack, Sundargarh-Bhubaneswar, Bhubaneswar-Bhawanipatna and Balangir-Bhubaneswar which ply through the district. And the Balangir-Raipur (inter-State) service also plies through the district.

Waiting sheds have been provided for passengers at Sambalpur, Bargarh, Burla, Hirakud, Rairakhol and Deogarh bus stands. There are provisions for lavatory in the waiting shed of Sambalpur.

Each passenger pays for one kilometre 4 paise in upper class and 3½ paise in lower class as fare. In addition, 15 per cent of the total fare is charged as tax. The freight is charged at the rate of 1 paise for 20 kilograms per kilometre after giving a free luggage allowance of 14 kilograms per adult passenger and 7 kilograms per child below 12 years of age.

One-fourth of the usual fare is charged in the State Transport Service buses to students visiting places of historical interest and taking part in sports. Athletes visiting from inside and outside the State are also allowed such concessions. Concession is allowed to school and college going students. According to this concession, each such person has to purchase a monthly ticket by paying only 30 single fares.

Rates of reservation charges per kilometre for different buses vary according to capacity. They are as follows :

Bus		With load Rs. P.	Empty haulage Rs. P.
(1) Deluxe	..	1·10	0·90
(2) 45 seats and above	..	1·30	0·90
(3) 40—44 seats	..	1·15	0·90
(4) 35—39 seats	..	1·00	0·80
(5) 32—34 seats	..	0·90	0·80
(6) Up to 31 seats	..	0·80	0·75

Detention charge per hour is four rupees. There is no charge or detention from 10 P.M. to 6 A.M.

95. Rail Roads

The main line of the South-Eastern Railway traverses the Bamra and Sambalpur subdivisions of the district for a length of 117·53 Kms. (73 miles) the stations being Garpos, Bamra, Dharuadihi (lies in Sundargarh district), Bagdihi. Dhutra, Jharsuguda, Ib, Brajarajnagar and Belpahar. This line was opened in 1890–91.

The branch line from Jharsuguda to Sambalpur (opened in 1893) has extended up to Titlagarh where it joins Raipur–Vizianagram branch line of the South-Eastern Railway. The new link which passes through Sambalpur and Bargarh subdivisions was opened on 15th April, 1963. The total length of the branch line in the district is 152·95 Kms. (95 miles) and the stations are Jharsuguda, Lapanga, Rengali, Sason, Sambalpur Road, Sambalpur, Hirakud, Attabira, Bargarh, and Barpali.

A new metre gauge Railway line has been opened between Bargarh and Dungri on 14th February, 1967. The line which in length is 33 miles (53 Kms.) has been built by the Industrial Development Corporation of Orissa mainly to carry 2,000 tons limestone daily from Dungri quarry to the cement plant site. There are four stations on the line via Gopalpur, Samardhara, Kusmuda (Kusumara), and Dungri. The average cost of construction of the line per mile comes to Rs. 2,30,000.

Railways play the most important role in the economy of the district Textiles, gram, pulses, coal, iron and steel materials. salt, sugar, kerosene, petrol, engine oil, chrome ore, quartz, silica stone, lime stone, lime, potatoes etc., are imported. Bamboo, firewood, timber, charcoal, myrobalans, kendu leaves, pipes, paper, paper board, refractory bricks, magnesite, fire clay, mahua flower, paddy, rice, aluminium, gum (crude), etc., are exported from the district.

96. Waterways

The river Mahanadi was formerly the main out-let for the trade of the district and boat transport is still carried on as far as Sonepur in the flood season. But since the opening of the railway, river-borne trade with Cuttack has greatly diminished. Boats could in former days ascend the Mahanadi as far as Arang of Madhya Pradesh.

During floods, boats take five days to reach Cuttack from Sambalpur. while the journey to Sonepur lasts one day and to Binka, six hours. The duration of the return journey is much longer. In July, it takes laden boats 25 days to reach Sambalpur from Cuttack.

The Brahmani river forms a means of communication in Deogarh subdivision for small open boats, but the presence of rocks and rapids renders the transport of goods on any large scale impossible.

97. Ferries

There is no ferry in the district maintained by the Public Works Department. A list of ferries maintained by different Grama Panchayats is given at Appendix IV.

Boats

In 1931, boat transport has been described as follows :—

"The boats mostly used are *dongas, kuslis, patwas* and *chaps*. *Dongas* are merely dug-outs, which are sometimes used for passenger traffic down to Cuttack. The other vessels are larger boats poled along by the boatmen and steered by a paddle tied to the stern, which is merely a long pole with a round piece of wood at the end. Patwas are long narrow boats made of *Sal* or *bija* planks fastened together with iron nails. They run to a length of 75 to 90 feet, and are used for the conveyance of grain up to the middle of December. They are poled, according to their size, by six, seven or eight men, and cost Rs. 250 to Rs. 450. Boats of this kind hold from 150 to 200 maunds of grain. *Chaps* are merely *Patwas* lashed together for the conveyance of cattle and carts, and are only used in flood time. *Kuslis* are similar in build to *Patwas* but broader, and are 45 to 60 feet long. A *Kusli* manned by three men usually holds 40 to 50 maunds of grain, and one poled by four men 60 maunds. The cost is Rs. 130 and Rs. 175, respectively, while the largest *Kusli* which is manned by five men, costs Rs. 200. Th y ply in mid-stream on the Mahanadi for passenger traffic, up to the end of March, but for the conveyance of grain, up to the middle of February only. About this time the river runs low, and owing to the small depth of water and the rocks, they are steered with considerable difficulty.

"When a *Kusli* manned by four men is engaged by a merchant, he has to pay the wages of six men, the extra wages being made over to the owner. The rates are : to Dhama, Rs. 2; to Binka and Trum, Rs. 3; to Sonepur, Rs. 4; to Baud, Rs. 5; and to Cuttack, Rs. 12 per boatman. Each boatman receives for the journey up and down stream 1¼ seers of rice and 1 pice daily, and the man who hires the boat has to pay any extra money spent in extricating it from sand and rocks. The steersmen get 8 annas each extra per stage. They are pilots who know the rocks and currents in their particular length of river, and do not go beyond it. The Sambalpur steersmen go up to Baghra and down to Dhama."[1]

In 1969, it has diminished almost to nil except where ferries exist.

98. Aerodromes

The Civil Aviation Department of Government of India have an aerodrome at Jharsuguda with a concrete runway. It is suitable for Dakota and occasional use by Fokker Friendship type of aircraft.

There is an aerodrome at Hirakud under the control of the State Government. It has a fairweather air strip.

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1. Sambalpur District Gazetteer by F. C. King—P. 187

The Tata Iron and Steel Company maintain an air strip at Belpahar for their Refractories factory.

None of the Air lines operate any scheduled service to any of the aerodromes.

99. Travel and Tourist facilities

V. Ball says (in 1876) that Sambalpur was the centre of trade and commerce during the time of Mughals and even before. The English traveller T. Motte also mentions (in 1766) that Sambalpur was famous for its cottage industries and was the centre of trade and commerce. This shows that in course of trade and to purchase diamonds, beryl, amethyst, corelian, topaz and other precious stones, Indians of different regions and foreigners must be regularly visiting Sambalpur through the centuries.

One of the main attractions for tourists in the district is Hirakud Dam Project. It is a multi purpose project, the biggest of its kind completed in the country since 1947, and is designed for power generation, irrigation and flood protection. The Dam is the longest concrete masonry-*cum*-earth dam in the world. Sixteen miles (25·76 kms) end to end, the main dam stretches 4·83 kms. (three miles) across the river-bed. It has 50·93 kms. (13 miles) of dykes flanking the right and the left sides. Both the main dam and the dykes provide a 25 feet wide drive-way for 32·20 kms. (20 miles). The maximum height of the concrete dam is 200 feet and the earth dam 195 feet.

The number of tourists who visited the project is furnished below :

Years		No. of tourists		
		Indian	Foreigner	Total
1967	..	74,104	129	74,233
1968	..	160,147	85	1,60,232

The next tourist attraction is Ushakothi, a wild life sanctuary of eastern Orissa, at Badarama. The sanctuary has recently been thrown open to visitors This sanctuary preserves tiger, leopard, elephant, bison, Sambar, deer of different species, and birds. Watch towers have been built through-out the forest for a view of the animals. It is situated at a distance of 43·47 kms. (27 miles) to the east of Sambalpur town and is on National Highway No. 6 (For details see Chapter I).

Narsinghnath, a place of pilgrimage, has scenic interest and is of considerable historical interest. It is situated about 32·20 kms.(20 miles) south-west of Padampur, 3·22 kms.(2 miles) from Paikmal on the western flank of the Gandhamardan range. The temple is at the source of the Papaharini Nala (a tributary of the Ong), at the point where it finally

leaves the hills after a number of cascades. The stream rises at the top of the hill and is said to first see sun-light at the foot of a large mango tree, where it bubbles forth from a spring. The temples are situated at the point where the tributary finally leaves the foot of the steep hill. The most important temple of the place is a fairly large one in Khajuraho style. There are also some other shrines which are comparatively modern. The other objects of interest, or at least of reverence, are the various *kunds* or pools in the bed of the stream, which are considered efficacious in washing away sins.

Deogarh, the headquarters town of its subdivision, has good scenic spots and a waterfall, which is very unhealthy, being full of mosquitoes. The place is connected with good road from Sambalpur.

The towns like Sambalpur, Bargarh, Barpali and Jharsuguda are of considerable interest for tourists also, on account of the variety of goods which come to the markets.

The district has no travel agents or tourist guides. However, the Tourist Information Bureau, Sambalpur makes arrangements for tourists. The Assistant Tourist Information Officer, who is in charge of the Bureau, works under the Home (Public Relations) Department, Bhubaneswar.

100. Hotels, Dharmasalas and Inspection Bungalows

There are no good hotels in the district. The Prabhat Hotel (Chitrotpala Lodging House) and Nataraj Lodging House recently started at Sambalpur and a few hotels at Jharsuguda provide boarding and lodging of a poor standard. In places like Bargarh, Barpali and Deogarh, there are Indian style restaurants for middle class people.

There is at Sambalpur town a travellers rest shed known as Panchayat Dharmasala. It contains 32 rooms. No beds are provided and the authorities of the Dharmasala charge a nominal rate for consumption of electricity. There are also Dharmasalas at Bargarh, Deogarh and Jharsuguda.

The Sarai at Sambalpur is under management of Zilla Parishad and it contains 5 rooms. State Electricity Board and Bhaskar Textiles Ltd. maintain their Guest Houses at Jharsuguda. The Industrial Development Corporation, Orissa has one Guest House (3 rooms) at Hirakud and another (2 rooms) at Bargarh. A Guest House (4 rooms) is also maintained by Indian Aluminium Company at Hirakud. The Ashok Nivas at Burla has 3 rooms. At Belpahar and Brajarajnagar also, there are two 3-roomed Guest Houses maintained by Belpahar

Refractories Ltd. and Orient Paper Mills, Brajarajnagar respectivley. There are Guest Houses in Agricultural Research Station, Sambalpur and in Sisal Farm, Nildungri. The Orissa Mining Corporation has a Guest House at Dungri.

Besides, the Circuit House at Sambalpur provides accommodation on arrangement with the appropriate authorities. A list of Inspection Bungalows and Rest Sheds maintained by various Departments is given at Appendix V.

101. Deraghars

Every village had its Deraghar. It was a shelter for visitors. It was mud-walled, mud-floored and thatched structure. It consisted of a living room and a stable for a horse. Even the Deputy Commissioner used to take shelter in a Deraghar during his tours. Keeping it in repairs was the responsibility of the Makadam. Lower Revenue Officers like Revenue Inspectors and Patwaris frequently used Deraghars.

After the abolition of Gaontiahi system, nobody in the villages is responsible for Deraghars. In many villages they have collapsed Theoretically, the Grama Panchayat should maintain Deraghars. But no Grama Panchayat does it.

10 . Posts and Telegraphs

Towards the end of the year 1908, the district (excluding the present subdivisions of Deogarh, Kuchinda and Rairakhol which were then ex-States) contained 65 post offices. The number of postal articles delivered in 1906-07 was 1,088,256 including 540,228 letters 378,846 Post Cards, 69,498 packets, 86,840 newspapers and 12,844 parcels. The value of money orders issued in the same year was Rs. 9,11,639 and those paid Rs. 4,27,906. In 1907-08, there were 1,096 deposits in savings bank, the total amount deposited being Rs. 2,19,319. There were five telegraph offices in the district.

During the above mentioned period, the ex-State of Bamra had Sub Post Offices at Deogarh and Bamra and branch post offices at Kuchinda and Barakot.

Previously, Raja Basudev Sudhal Dev of Bamra had his own Posta System in his State. The Head Post Office was at Deogarh, with a few more branches at different places. He had his own postage stamp. For letters sent outside the State, postage worth one anna (equivalent now to 6 paise) was being charged and for letters communicating within the State half anna postage was charged. The ruler was deriving some income from postal business. But incovenience was experienced in

its administration. Moreover, it was costly to the people. So at last, the ruler agreed in 1894 to hand it over to the Imperial Post Office Department. In this connection, the following is quoted from Administration Report (1894):— "The Raja has hitherto kept the postal arrangement within his State, entirely in his own hands............The authorities of the Imperial Post Office Department are now prepared to take over the arrangements undertaking to afford the same postal facilities and conveniences to the public of Bamra State............ Amalgamation of his local postal system with that of the Government of India were brought to a happy conclusion and the new arrangement have been introduced with effect from 1st January 1895[1]".

There was a telephone line connecting Bamra Railway Station with Deogarh and Barakot. Telephone communication was introduced in 1901 in Bamra ex-State. (Telephone was invented only in 1875). At first, Gobindpur (Bamra), Kuchinda, Sirid (Siridi), and Deogarh were connected by telephone. Then it was extended to Balam and Barakot. As incidences of dacoity increased in Mahulpali area, the line was extended to Kesaibahal. At that time, the Statesman of Calcutta is said to have reported that this was the longest telephone line in India [2].

The ex-State of Rairakhol had a branch post office at Rampur under the management of the Imperial Postal Department.

Towards 1930, Postal Organisation in the district was already under the charge of a Superintendent of Post Offices. The district then contained 84 post offices. The value of money orders issued in 1930 was Rs. 30,29,153 and of those paid was Rs. 14,91,752. In the same year, there were 7,163 deposits in the Postal Savings Bank, the total amount deposited being Rs. 5,33,054. There were 8 telegraph offices in the district.

In 1931, there were 85 post offices in the district which included one Head Office, 10 Sub-Offices and 74 branch offices. In 1941, besides the head post office, there were 12 Sub-Post Offices, 79 branch post

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[1] ବାସୁଦେବ ଗ୍ରନ୍ଥାବଳୀ P.33

[2] ବାସୁଦେବ ଗ୍ରନ୍ଥାବଳୀ–PP.–35—36 ! "୧୯୦୦ ଖ୍ରୀଷ୍ଟାବ୍ଦରେ ଏହି (ଟେଲିଫୋନ ସ୍ଥାପନ) କାର୍ଯ୍ୟ ଆରମ୍ଭ ହୋଇ ୧୯୦୧ରେ କାର୍ଯ୍ୟ ସମ୍ପନ୍ନ ହେଲା । ପ୍ରଥମରେ ଗୋବିନ୍ଦପୁର (ବାମରା), କୁଚିଣ୍ଡା, ସିରିଡ଼ି ଓ ଦେଓଗଡ଼ରେ ପ୍ରତିଷ୍ଠିତ ହୋଇ ପୂର୍ବଦିଗରେ ବଲମ୍ ଓ ବାରାକୁଟ ପର୍ଯ୍ୟନ୍ତ ପ୍ରସାରିତ ହୋଇଥିଲା । ମହୁଲପାଲି ଅଞ୍ଚଳରେ ଦସ୍ୟୁ ଭୟ ପ୍ରବଳ ଥିବାରୁ ପରେ କେଶେଇବାହାଲରୁ ସେଠାକୁ ଗୋଟିଏ ଶାଖା ଲାଇନ୍ ଯାଇଥିଲା । ଏହା ଭାରତରେ ଦୀର୍ଘତମ ଟେଲିଫୋନ ଲାଇନ୍ ବୋଲି କଲିକତାର ସମ୍ବାଦପତ୍ର ଷ୍ଟେଟସ୍‌ମ୍ୟାନରେ ପ୍ରକାଶିତ ହୋଇଥିଲା" ।

offices and one extra Departmental Post Office in the district. After 1947, the postal communication of the district has developed considerably. In 1961, the district had one head post office, 20 sub-post offices, 2 extra departmental sub-post offices and 297 branch post offices. In 1969, there were 390 Post Offices of all categories, which include 1 Head Office, 47 sub-offices, and 342 branch offices. A list of these post offices is given in Appendix VI. The Sambalpur Postal division which comprises two districts, viz., Sambalpur and Sundargarh, is controlled by a Superintendent of Post Offices, who has his office at Sambalpur.

During 1967-68, the money orders issued were 276,756 and the amount was Rs. 18,197,077 while during 1968-69 it was 280.472 and Rs. 1,90,60,199 respectively. Similarly 126,473 money orders were paid in the district during 1967-68 and the amount was Rs. 98,36,925 and during 1968-69 it was 125,868 and Rs. 85,23,999 respectively.

The total number of Savings Bank depositors in 1960 and 1961 were 21,623 with a deposit of Rs. 39,56,973 and 22,812 with a deposit of Rs. 39,08,751 respectively. The number of withdrawals in the above two years were 16,732 with an withdrawal amount of Rs. 2.62,430 and 16,036 with an withdrawal amount of Rs. 23,08,150 respectively. During 1967, Rs. 21,09,989 was deposited in Savings Bank account and Rs. 26,18,850 withdrawn.

In 1961, total number of insured letters, ordinary parcels and insured parcels posted in different post offices of the district stood at 7,206,060 and 276 respectively. There were 75,312 letters posted monthly in the same year. In 1967, the total number of insured letters and insured parcels posted were 6,953 and 1,401 respectively.

By 1963, all important post offices were connected with telegraph and telephone communications. In 1969, there were 39 combined post offices at the following places:—

Ambabhona, Attabira, Bamra, Bargarh, Barakot, Barpali, Belpahar R. S., Bhatli, Bheran, Bijepur, Brajarajnagar, Budharaja, Burla, Charmal, Chiplima, Deogarh, Dhama, Dhanupali, Gourpali, Hirakud, Jagdalpur, Jamunkira (Jamankira), Jharsuguda, Jharuapara, Jujomura, Katarbaga, Khetrajpur, Kuchinda, Laikera, Mahulpali, Melchhamunda, Paikmal, Rairakhol, Raj-Borasambar (Padampur), Rengali, Riamal, Sason, Sohela and Talpatia.

103. Telephone Exchanges

Opened in 1944, Jharsuguda is the oldest Telephone Exchange of the district.

The next is Sambalpur Exchange, opened in 1947. Bargarh Exchange was established in 1957. During 1963, there were only six telephone exchanges at Bargarh, Burla, Jharsuguda, Sambalpur, Chiplima (PBX) and Hirakud (PBX). The Exchanges at Jharsuguda, Sambalpur, Bargarh, Burla and Hirakud were operated by central battery system and the Chiplima Exchange by magneted system.

By the end of 1968, there were exchanges at the following places with the total number of lines noted against each:—

1. Attabira	..	25 lines
2. Bargarh	..	100 lines
3. Brajarajnagar	..	25 lines
4. Burla	..	200 lines
5. Deogarh	..	50 lines
6. Jharsuguda	..	150 lines
7. Rengali	..	25 lines
8. Sambalpur	..	720 lines
9. Sohela	..	25 lines
10. Hirakud PBX (under Sambalpur)	..	50 lines
11. Chiplima PBX (under Burla)	..	10 lines
12. Orient Paper Mills (Brajarajnagar) PBX (under Jharsuguda).		20 lines

104. Pigeon Service

The district has, under the control of Police Department, two pigeon lofts. The main pigeon loft is stationed at Sambalpur with 60 birds and another loft at Padampur with 20 birds.

There are two kinds of service, that is, static and boomerang. Static birds communicate with Deogarh, Rairakhol, Jharsuguda, Kuchinda, Rampur and Brajarajnagar in times of emergency.

Daily boomerang services operate to Kuchinda, Katarbaga, and Bheran Police-Stations from the Sambalpur loft. From Padampur loft, pigeons are sent to Gaisilat, Jagdalpur, Bijepur and Paikmal Police-Stations. On each of these routes 4 birds operate daily.

105. Radio and Wireless

(i) Radio

The Sambalpur Station of All-India Radio started broadcasting from 1963. This 20 Kilowatt station is an extension of the Cuttack Station for the purpose of relaying the programmes of that station. During 1967, 7,141 broadcasting sets were licensed in the district.

(ii) Wireless

The Police Wireless Stations are located at Sambalpur (with sub-control), Deogarh, Bargarh, Padampur, and Brajarajnagar. These stations have been installed for transmission of messages connected with law and order. V. H. F. communications are also provided for use in Sambalpur town and in industrial areas during disturbances or during visits of V. I. Ps. to those places. During monsoons, three more temporary wireless stations are installed in the district for transmission of flood messages, as well as for the gauge reading of Hirakud Dam.

APPENDIX I

The Route of Firoz Shah's Return Journey *

From Sirat-i-Feroz Shahi it is known that Feroz Shah went to Padmatala for kheda of elephants. Padmatala is situated 90 miles west of Cuttack and it seems that Feroz Shah returned to Delhi from Padmatala after following the western pilgrim and trade route from Orissa to Madhya Pradesh which was bifurcated in the hilly area of Orissa through the river valley of Aung and Mahanadi. It seems that Feroz Shah followed the route of the Mahanadi via Sambalpur. At Sambalpur there are a good many Muslim tombs and the local tradition refers to Kalapahar. But Kalapahar never went to Sambalpur area It is a fact that Hosang Shah of Malwa came to Cuttack in 1421 A. D. after following this western pilgrim route to Orissa. There is no report that Hosang Shah's party suffered from difficulty on their way at Sambalpur. Therefore, the Muslim tombs should be allotted to the army of Feroz Shah.

Afif's Tarikh-i-Firoz states that "after Sultan had started on the return journey to Delhi the guides lost their way and proceeded over mountains and plains and along the banks of a river like Jihim [1]". Had the Sultan returned from Cuttack in the Bihar route through which he came to Orissa no help of the guide would have been necessary. It seems that from Sambalpur Feroz Shah followed the hilly route via old Gangpur, Western Ranchi and Palamau and reached Mirzapur in U. P. or Shahabad in Bihar on which route he had to cross the wide Sone river. From Shahabad the Emperor had no difficulty to come to Delhi.

About the difficult nature of the route Elliot and Dawson have written as follows :—

"The author's father who accompanied the March stated that the army ascended and descended mountain after mountain and passed through jangals and hills until they were quite in dispair and utterly worn out with fatigue of the arduous march. No road was to be found nor any grain; provisions became very scarce and army was reduced to the verge of destruction. For six months no news of the Sultan reached Delhi [2]". The description is fully found to be true in the area of the upper Mahanadi valley and also in the Madhya Pradesh or Bihar.

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* Written by Sri Paramananda Acharya in Orissa Historical Research Journal Vol. XIII. No. 3

1. Tarik-i-Firoz P. 54

2. *Ibid*, P. 55

When Afif's father did not mention the names of places, it seems that Muslims were quite ignorant of the area in the Gundwana. After long marches when the army reached the Ganges valley, they arrived at a safe place. Afif describes as follows :--

"The Sultan's army having at length traversed the mountains and jungles and having crossed the river, after enduring great privations and practically many expeditions came out in to the open country[1]".

About the tombs at Sambalpur the Sambalpur Gazetteer mentions as follows :—

"The tombs of the muhammadans who accompanied Kalapahar are pointed out at Sankarbandh where his army encamped[2]".

These tombs must be therefore attributed to the death of the army that followed Feroz Shah in his return journey.

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1. *Ibid* P. 55

2. Sambalpur District Gazetteer, 1932, P. 25.

APPENDIX II

REVENUE ROADS NOW MAINTAINED BY PANCHAYAT SAMITIS

Name of Panchayat Samiti		Length of road
SAMBALPUR SUBDIVISION		
1. Jharsuguda	..	114·31 Kms. (71 miles)
2. Rengali	..	90·96 Kms. (56½ miles)
3. Laikera I	..	26·56 Kms. (16½ miles)
4. Laikera II	..	15·29 Kms. (9½ miles)
5. Laikera III	..	69·23 Kms. (43 miles)
6. Sambalpur I	..	119·14 Kms. (74 miles)
7. Sambalpur II	..	37·03 Kms. (23 miles)
8. Sambalpur III	..	47·49 Kms. (29½ miles)
9. Lakhanpur	..	235·06 Kms. (146 miles)
BARGARH SUBDIVISION (INCLUDING PADAMPUR)		
10. Sohela	..	26·56 Kms. (16½ miles)
11. Padampur	..	33·81 Kms. (21 miles)
12. Attabira	..	28·98 Kms. (18 miles)
13. Barpali	..	37·03 Kms. (23 miles)
14. Jharbandh	..	56·35 Kms. (35 miles)
15. Gaisilat	..	49·91 Kms (31 miles)
16. Bheran (Bheden)	..	46·69 Kms. (29 miles)
17. Bargarh	..	9·66 Kms. (6 miles)
18. Bijepur	..	71·64 Kms. (44½ miles)
19. Bhatli	..	33·81 Kms. (21 miles)
20. Ambabhona	..	39·25 Kms. (25 miles)
21. Paikmal	..	28·98 Kms. (18 miles)
DEOGARH SUBDIVISION		
22. Deogarh	..	169·05 Kms. (105 miles)
23. Barakot	..	115·92 Kms. (72 miles)
24. Naikul	..	158·58 Kms. (98½ miles)
KUCHINDA SUBDIVISION		
25. Kuchinda	..	86·94 Kms. (54 miles)
26. Gobindpur	..	118·14 Kms. (74 miles)
27. Jamunkira (Jamankira)	..	165·83 Kms. (103 miles)
RAIRAKHOL SUBDIVISION		
28. Rairakhol	..	164·02 Kms. (102½ miles)
29 Naktideul	..	130·41 Kms. (81 miles)

APPENDIX III

FOREST ROADS

Name of Forest Road		Length (Kms.)
BAMRA FOREST DIVISION		
1. Badbahal-Bhutel	..	35
2. Badarama-Orsing (Udsung)-Palsabahal	..	13
3. Belmunda-Majurdima	..	11
4. Bhutel-Orgaon	..	4
5. Bhutel-Podadihi	..	13
6. Binjipali-Dangapal	..	9
7. Garpos-Chhatam	..	8
8. Ghunghuti-Kholbelung	..	18
9. Kesaibahal-Betjharan	..	16
10. Kinabaga-Kuladera	..	24
11. Kuladera-Garpos	..	26
12. Laimura-Barabahal (Badbahal)	..	8
13. Mendhabahal-Gumlai	..	5
14. Mendhabahal-Pukuda	..	16
15. Mendhabahal-Tangarani	..	8
16. Mendhabahal-Orsing (Udsung)	..	4
17. Pathuria-Organ (Part I)	..	7
18. Pathuria-Organ (Part II)	..	4
19. Pukuda-Tangarani	..	9
20. Rangiatikra-Nuapali	..	14
21. Tarandaghat road	..	1·5
22. Orsing (Udsung)-Taranda	..	8

Name of Forest Road		Length (Kms.)
DEOGARH FOREST DIVISION		
1. Gundiapali-Tinkbir	..	5
2. Kalipal-Jalisuan	..	3
3. Kansar-Hiran	..	11
4. Khairpali-Palasama	..	3
5. Suguda-Gundiapali		14
6. Thianal-Sarwali (Saruali)	..	10
PADAMPUR FOREST RANGE		
1. Ghens-Sargunapali	..	4
2. Jaypur-Batipathar	..	7
3. Jamseth-Dudkijharia	..	4
4. Suklipahad-Amthi	..	30
SAMBALPUR FOREST DIVISION		
1 Amdarha-Badjob	..	3
2 Badsahir-Meghpal	..	14
3 Baghmunda-Betjharan	..	4
4. Basupali-Sardhapali-Dhurropan	..	11
5. Bhimkhoj–Chhamunda–Meghpal–Rairakhol border.		25
6 Bugbugi–Ambabhona	..	5
7. Dechua–Bugbugi	..	9
8 Dechua Link	..	3
9. Gopalpur–Khajuria–Patheidurga–Jhagda-behera.		16·5
10 Hatibari–Alighati–Kolgaon	..	17·5
11. Istupali–Chakuli	..	6
12 Jadamunda–Duari	..	6·5
13 Jamtal–Birghat	..	15

Name of forest road		Length (Kms.)
14. Jamtal–Chhamunda (via Hatibari)	..	13·5
15. Jaypur–Darlipali	..	6·5
16. Jharaikanta–Bhursipali	..	3
17. Kamgaon–Lambipali	..	7·5
18. Kasipali (Rengali)–Gumlai	..	8
19. Kilasama–Gumlai	..	24
20. Lakhanpur–Khola	..	5
21. Lakhanpur–Patheidurga	..	13·5
22. Larasara–Kolgaon (via–Ludhagura)	..	12
23. Lether-Dechua	..	9
24. Ludhagura–Patrapali (via–Tabloi)	..	19
25. Mundkati–Ganpai	..	3
26. Patrapali-Nandighoshpali	..	10
27. Rampaluga–Bhowerkhol	..	5 (Part after submergence)
28. Right dyke–Jhagdabehera–Chaurashimal	..	10
29. Right duke–Kamgaon	..	20
30. Sitlanpali (Dhama)–Alighati–Kolgaon	..	17·5
31. Sukhadebta–Pandritarai	..	6
RAIRAKHOL FOREST DIVISION		
1. Madhupur–Badmal	..	33
2. Charmal–Balikiari	..	16
3. Badmal–Mochibahal-Talab–Phulkusum	..	32
4. Mochibahal–Bhaluchua	..	13
5. Kisinda–Badkachha	..	20
6. Kisinda–Hiraloi–Rairakhol border	..	7
7. Giripur–Naktideul–Chadchadi	..	37
8. Bhunkchali–Rail	..	16
9. Pathargarh–Rail	..	16
10. Rail–Chadchadi	..	16

APPENDIX IV

LIST OF FERRIES

Name of Community Development Blocks	Name of Grama Panchayat	Name of ferry/ village
1	2	3
BARGARH SUBDIVISION		
1. Bheran (Bheden) ..	1. Bheran	1. Bheran-Bakti
		2. Bheran-Domuhani
		3. Barpadar
		4. Achhandpali
		5. Semel
		6. Dubenpali-Jamdol
		7. Talgaon
	2. Sialkhandta	8. Sialkhandta
	3. Mahulpali	9. Mahulpali-Jiraghat
		10. Brahmanturam
		11. Mahulpali
		12. Bhutlod
	4. Rusra (Rusuda)	13. Kamanga
	5. Deshbhatli	14. Deshbhatli
2. Bargarh ..	6. Adgaon	15. Kuruan
3. Attabira ..	7. Jhilimunda	16. Jhilimunda
4. Ambabhona		17. Palsada Launsara
		18. Barangakota
		19. Antaradi
		20. Budhi ali
		21. Ruc ida
DEOGARH SUBDIVISION		
1. Barakot ..	1. Khandam	22. Khandam
	2. Khajurikhaman	23. Kulusara
	3. Balanda	24. Singhasal
		25. Ambagan

Name of Community Development Blocks	Name of Grama Panchayat	Name of ferry/ village
1	2	3
2. Riamal	4. Gangnan	26. Gangnan
3. Naikul (Gogwa)	5. Gogwa	27. Analakoli
		28. Gohira
		29. Jadagola
		30. Pindapal
	6. Rengta	31. Bindpur
		32. Rengta
		33. Podadihi
		34. Kadalipal
		35. Kesla
		36. Jharadihi
	7. Budhapal	37. Sarapal
		38. Jhar. dihi
		39. Kund igola
	8. Goudsuguda	40. Bhatsing
SAMBALPUR SUBDIVISION		
1. Jharsuguda ..	1. Durlaga	41. Talpatia
	2. Panchpara	42. Panchpara
	3. H. Katapali	43. H. Katapali
	4. Patarapali	44. Rampur-Kataba
		45. Khait Malada
		46. Dumermunda
	5. Kudopali	47. Bundia
	.	48. Baliput
		49. Kirarama
2. Rengali ..	6. Kurla	50. Sapne Rampellac
		51. Kurla Baghmund
	7. Babere Khinda	52. Dantamura Ghat
		53. Chaltikra Ghat
	8. Ghichamura	54. Budula Parmanpur Ghat
	9. Laira (Laida)	55. Deheripal Ghat
		56. Dalapatpali Ghar
3. Sambalpur ..	10. Chaurpur	57. Mundoghat-Bar-bazar
		58. Chaurpur
	11. Talab	59. Tihura Ghat
	12. Kardola	60. Ashram Ghat

Name of Community Development Blocks	Name of Grama Panchayat	Name of ferry/ village
1	2	3
4. Manesar ..	13. Dhama	61. Deogaon
		62. Dhama
	14. Bargaon	63. Haldi
	15. Sahaspur	64. Chakuli
	16. Batemura	65. Sunderpur (Malti Ghat).
	17. Tabla	66. Kulta Nuapali
5. Lakhanpur ..	18. Baghmunda	67. Gundlim l
	29. Bhourkhol	68. Parsian
	20. Samarbaga	69. Lachipali
	21. Bhikampali	70. Padampur
	22. Kanaktura	71. Kanaktura
		72. Kandagarh
		73. Luhabaga
		74. Badadarha
	23. Rampella	75. Rampella
		76. Baghmunda
		77. Taldihi
		78. Tihura
	24. Charpali	79. Tiligi
		80. Dhulunda
	25. Remta	81. Mahulpali
		82. Mahudi
		83. Saradba
KUCHINDA SUBDIVISION		
1. Kuchinda ..	1. Satkama	84. Bandubas
2. Jamunkira ..	2. Phasimal	85. Deogaon
	3. Dhudipali	86. Monapali
		87. Ladampali
	4. Dimirimunda	88. Sagadeswar

Name of Community Development Blocks	Name of Grama Panchayat	Name of ferry/ Village
1	2	3
PADAMPUR SUBDIVISION		
1. Jharbandh ..	1. Amthi	89. Amthi Ghat
2. Padampur ..	2. Budamal	90. Firupali
		91. Banupali
	3. Jamla	92. Jamla
	4. Kansingha	93. Bamrit
	5. Palsapali	94. Sarangpur
Gaisilat ..	6. Sardhapali	95. Risalpadar
	7. Gaisilat	96. Bhelluapadar
	8. Talpali	97. Jamutpali
RAIRAKHOL SUBDIVISION		
Naktideul .	1. Naktideul	98. Tikra
	2. Balgaon	99. Jamjori
		100. Kunjamoura Temple.

APPENDIX V

List of Inspection Bungalows and Rest Houses in Sambalpur district

Name of Sub-division	Inspection Bungalow Circuit House	Rest House
1	2	3
1. Bargarh (including Padampur).	1. Attabira ...	1. Ambabhona
	2. Bargarh (old & new)	2. Bargarh
	3. Baipali ..	3. Bargarh (Irrigation)
	4. Padampur ..	4. Bheran (Bheden)
	5. Paikmal ..	5. Bijepur
	6. Sohela ..	6. Charmunda (Excise).
		7. Dechua (Forest)
		8. Gaisilat
		9. Gandturum
		10. Jamseth (P. W. D.)
		11. Jharbandh
		12. Khajuria (Forest)
		13. Lakhanpur
		14. Loharchatti (P. W. D.).
		15. Malda (P. W. D.)
		16. Melchhamunda
		17. Mundkati (Forest)
		18. Sohela

Name of Sub-division		Inspection Bungalow Circuit House		Rest House
1		2		3
2. Deogarh	..	1. Balam	..	1. Budhapal
		2. Balita	..	2. Deogarh
		3. Basanta Nivas (Deogarh).		3. Kantapali
		4. Lalita Basanta (Deogarh).		4. Naikul
				5. Riamal
3. Kuchinda	..	1. Gobindpur	..	1. Badarama (Forest)
		2. Kesaibahal	..	2. Garpos
		3. Kuchinda	..	3. Jamunkira (Jamankira).
		4. Sirid (Siridi)	..	4. Jarabaga
				5. Kuchinda
				6. Kusumi
				7. Phasimal (Fasimal)
				8. Turei
4. Rairakhol	..	1. Charmal	..	1. Badmal
		2. Rairakhol (Revenue)		2. Batgaon
				3. Kadligarh
				4. Kisinda
				5. Naktideul
				6. Rairakhol (P.W.D)

Name of Sub-division	Inspection Bungalow Circuit House	Rest House
1	2	3
5. Sambalpur ..	1. Brajarajnagar ..	1. Belpahar
	2. Burla (Ashok Nivas)	2. Bhikampali
	3. Jharsuguda ..	3. Burla (Irrigation)
	4. Dhama ..	4. Burla (Electricity Board).
	5. Jujomura ..	5. Chhamunda (Forest)
		6. Chiplima (Electricity Board).
	6. Mundher	7. Gamlai (Forest)
	7. Rengali ..	8. Jamadarpali (Irrigation).
	8. Sambalpur (Upper and Lower).	9. Jharsuguda
		10. Jharsuguda (Electricity Board).
	9. Sambalpur (Circuit House).	11. Kalamatia
		12. Katarbaga
		13. Koilighugar
		14. Kolabira
		15. Kolgaon (Forest)
		16. Laira (Laida)
		17. Lakhanpur (P. W. D.).
		18. Lapanga
		19. Larasara (Forest
		20. Parmanpur
		21. Rajpur
		22. Sahaspur
		23. Sambalpur (Forest).
		24. Sardhapali (Forest).

N.B.—Unless otherwise stated, the Inspection Bungalows belong to P.W.D. and the Rest Sheds to Revenue Department. The Executive Engineer, Roads & Buildings Division, Sambalpur controls all Inspection Bungalows except those in Kuchinda subdivision and in Jharsuguda, Brajarajnagar, and the Lakhanpur Rest Shed which are under Executive Engineer Roads & Buildings Division, Sundargarh.

APPENDIX VI

List of Post Offices in Sambalpur district

(Under Sambalpur Head Office)

(1) SAMBALPUR H. O.

1. Badsahir
2. Baham
3. Bansajal
4. Basiapara
5. Charmal C. O.
6. Chaurpur
7. Dangapara
8. Gourpali C. O.
9. Hatibari
10. Jhankerapali
11. Jujomura C. O.
12. Kabrapali
13. Manesar (Maneswar)
14. Mochibahal
15. Mandhanpal
16. Rengali Badmal

(2) AMBHABHONA C. S. O.

1. Bhainatora
2. Banjipali
3. Bhukta
4. Bara
5. Dungri
6. Kandapala
7. Kapasira
8. Karla Santhra
9. Kumbha
10. Lakhanpur
11. Ruchida
12. Tamdei

(3) ATTABIRA C. S. O., P. C. O.

1. Hirlipali
2. Lastala
3. Paharsirgida
4. Saranda
5. Tope

(4) BAGDIHI S. O

1. Babuchupidihi
2. Birbira
3. Dharuadihi
4. Karla
5. Kuarmal
6. Majhapara
7. Pankenpara
8. Taleimal
9. Gadiajore

(5) BAMRA C. S O., P. C. O

1. Bansalaga
2. Gardega
3. Garposh
4. Katarimal
5. Lampti
6. Nuapali
7. Pindapathar
8. Rangiatikra
9. Sagra
10. Uchakapat

(6) BARGARH (L. S. G.) C. S. O., P. C. O.

1. Adagaon
2. Barhaguda
3. Bagbadi
4. Chakarkend
5. Gobindpur
6. Gudesira
7. Jatla
8. Jatlasirgida
9. Khandshata
10. Khuntpali
11. Sarkanda
12. Sarsara
13. Tora

(7) BARGARH COURT N. D.

(8) BARABAZAR (SAMBALPUR) N. D. E. L.

(9) BARPALI C. S. O., P. C. O.

1. Birmal
2. Bhatigaon
3. Bandhapali
4. Bijayapali
5. Katapali (Barpali)
6. Kumbhari
7. Mahada
8. Remta
9. Satlama
10. Talamdi

(10) BARDOL S. O.

1. Banda
2. Bargarh-Bargaon
3. Banda Kharmunda
4. Beherapali
5. Bhadigaon
6. Deogaon
7. Kamgaon
8. Katapali (Bargarh)
9. Urdna

(11) BELPAHAR S. O., P. C.

(12) BELPAHAR R. S. (B) C. S. O., P. C. O.

1. Ainlapada
2. Bagmunda
3. Banjari
4. Bhairkhol
5. Charpali-Barpali
6. Dalgaon
7. Jorabaga
8. Kudabaga
9. Kudaloi
10. Mura
11. New Adhapara
12. Ramella
13. Rampella
14. Remda
15. Sarandamal
16. Sunari

(13) BHATLI C. S. O.

1. Bichuan
2. Chadaigaon
3. Hatisar
4. Jhikijhiki
5. Kanakhira
6. Kesaipali
7. Mulbar
8. Nilji
9. Routpara
10. Sukuda
11. Sulsulia
12. Tejagola

(14) BRAJARAJNAGAR (L. S. O.) C. S. O., P. C. O.

1. Chichinda (B. R. Nagar)
2. Gandghora
3. Katabaga
4. Lamptibahal
5. Rajpur
6. Rampur-Colliery

(15) BHEDEN C. S. O.

1. Areigudi
2. Barpadar
3. Chichinda (Bheden)
4. Ganturum
5. Kubedega
6. Kudopali
7. Manpur
8. Resam
9. Rusra (Rusuda)
10. Sialkhandta

(16) BIJEPUR C. S. O.

1. Barbaunsen (Badbaunsen)
2. Budapali
3. Jaring
4. Kharmunda
5. Pahandi
6. Saipali
7. Sirgida

(17) BIRA SURENDRA SAI NAGAR N.D.S O.

(18) BUDHARAJA N. D. C. S. O

(19) BURLA (L. S. G.) C. S. O., P. C. O.

(20) CHIPLIMA C. S. O.

(21) DEOGARH (L. S. G.) C. S. O., P. C. O.

1. Ambagaon
2. Hamparda
3. S. Balam
4. Balanda
5. Basaloi
6. Barakot C. O., P. C. O.
7. Bhatsingh
8. Budido
9. Charmocha (Charimancha)
10. Candasingha
11. Donra (Danra)
12. Gogwa (Gogua)
13. Ganganan
14. Gursanga (Gurusang)
15. Jadagola
16. Kadopada
17. Kola (Kalla)
18. K. Tainsar
19. Kantapali
20. Khilei
21. Khandam
22. Maidhyapur (Madhyapur)
23. Naikul
24. Nanai
25. Nuadihi
26. Palsama
27. Rengalbeda
28. Rengata (Rengta)
29. Suguda
30. Sarwali (Sarauli)
31. Tentalabahal
32. Tabada

(22) DHANUPALI C. S. O.

1. Amkuni
2. Bargaon
3. Batemura
4. Dhama C. O.
5. Sahaspur

(23) ENGINEERING COLLEGE BURLA S. O.

(24) GOLEBAZAR N. D.

(25) HIRAKUD (L. S. G.) C. S. O., P. C. O.

(26) INDUSTRIAL ESTATE (L. S. G.) N. D.

(27) JHARSUGUDA (L. S. G.) C. S. O., P. C. O.

1. Arda
2. Badal
3. Bhalupatra
4. Durlaga
5. Ektali
6. H. Katapali
7. Jamtalia
8. Mangaspur
9. Marakuta
10. Panchpara
11. Sripura
12. Sulahi
13. Talpatia C. O.
14. Talmal

(28) JAMANKIRA C. S. O.

1. Badarama
2. Bhojpur
3. Chakutiabahal
4 Chinimahul
5. Dholpada
6 Kansar
7. Katarkela
8. Phasimal (Fasimal)
9 Tikiba
10. Tiklipada
11. Shired

(29) JHARUAPARA N. D. C. S. O.

(30) KALIMANDIR ROAD (JHARSUGUDA)

(31) KHETRAJPUR N. D. C. O

(32) KOLABIRA S. O.

1. Bhatlaida
2. Thirlapali
3. Kinadhipa
4. Kirmira
5. Laikera
6. Laira (Laida) C. O.
7. Malidihi
8. Mudrajore
9. Naksapali (Naxapali)
10. Paramandapur
11. Raghunathpali
12. Sahaspur
13. Samasingha
14. Sarangloi

(33) KUCHINDA C. S. O., P. C. O.

1. Baksama
2. Bauriguda
3. Badbahal
4. Babunikitimal
5 Chandnimal
6. Dhudipali
7. Gochura
8. Hattipali
9. Jarabaga
10. Jarda
11. Jhargogwa
12. Kuntara
13. Kesaibahal
14. Kabribahal
15. Kusumi
16. K. Jamankira
17. Kutrachuan
18 K. Laimura
19. Lariapali
20. Lachada
21. Mohulpali
22. Paruabhari (Paruavadi)
23. Sole
24 Talitilaimal
25. Turei

(34) LARAMBHA S. O.

1. Baסebira
2. Bugbuga
3 Deshbhatli
4. Jhilminda
5. Kadobahal
6. Kultatukra
7. Tamparsara

(35) MELCHHAMUNDA–C. S. O.

1. Chantipali
2. Dangababal
3. Diptipur
4. Gaisilat
5. Ganiapali
6. Jamutbabal
7. Jamla
8. Katabahal
9. Kundakhai
10. Nagaon
11. Salepali
12. Sargibahal

(36) MEDICAL COLLEGE, BURLA–ND.

(37) O. M. P. LINE (JSG) ED.

(38) PAIKMAL–C. S. O.

1. Amthi
2. Bijadhal
3. Bartunda
4. Bhengrajpur
5. Bhubaneswarpur
6. Dabha
7. Jharbandh
8. Jamseth
9. Madosil
10. Palsada
11. Sakri
12. Temri

(39) RAJBORASAMBAR. C. S. O., P. C. O.

1. Badikata
2. Buren (Boden)
3. Burkel
4. Dahigaon
5. Dahita
6. Goudmal
7. Jagdalpur C. O.
8. Kansingha
9. Lakhmara
10. Laudidarah
11. Purena

(40) RAIRAKHOL—C. S. O., P. C. O.

1. Batgaon
2. Doincha (Daincha)
3. Kisinda
4. Kadligarh
5. Kelloballam
6. Luhapank
7. Naktideul
8. Sarapali
9. Tribanpur

(41) REMED—S. O.

1. Amsada-Katapali
2. Baraipali
3. Dhankauda
4. Gurbhaga (Godbhaga)
5. Jamadarpali
6. Lahanda
7. Sankarma
8. Talab

(42) REMENDA (REMUNDA)—S. O.

1. Bhoipali
2. Burda
3. Dekulba
4. Janhapara (Janhapada)
5. Kuruan
6. Lupursingha
7. Sankirda
8. Talsirgira (Talsirgida)

(43) RENGALI—C. S. O., P. C. O.

1. Bamaloi
2. Jharghati-Colony
3. Khinda
4. Katarbaga C. O.
5. Lapanga

(44) RIAMAL—C. S. O., P. C. O.

1. Aunli
2. Dasgharia
3. Gambharipali
4. Kantabahal
5. Kundaigola (Kundheigola)
6. Naulipara
7. Salebhata
8. Sarapal
9. Tinkbir
10. Tuhilamal
11. Tungumal

(45) SASON—C. S. O.

1. Bisalkhinda
2. Parmanpur
3. Sangramal. B. Camp
4. Tamperkela
5. Talab
6. Themra

(46) SAMBALPUR COURT—N. D. S. O.

(47) SOHELA—C. S. O., P. C. C.

1. Baunsenmura
2. Birjam
3. Ghens
4. Jhar
5. Jokhipali
6. Kalangapali
7. Kamgaon
8. Laumunda
9. Lebri (Lebidi)
10. Madhupur
11. Maihipali
12. Pandakipali
13. Panimura
14. Sanimal
15. Tabra (Tabada)
16. Talpadar
17. Tungibandhali

(48) STATION ROAD BRAJARAJNAGAR)—N. D., S.O.

Head Office	..	1
Sub-Offices	..	47
Branch Offices	..	342
Grand Total	..	390

Abbreviations :

C. O. stands for Combined Office, C.S O. for Combined Sub-Office, H. O. for Head Office, L. S. G. for Lower Selection Grade, N. D. for Non Delivery, P. C. O. for Public Call Office, and S. O. for Sub-Office.

CHAPTER VIII

MISCELLANEOUS OCCUPATIONS

106. Introductory

In the Census of 1901 it was found that 77·7 per cent of the population of the district (as then constituted) were dependent on agriculture. "Practically all the castes have some connection or other with land, but approved members of the Hindu social system, such as Brahmans, Kultas, Telis and Malis, form a full half of the tenantry and hold much more than half the land. Of the others, at least half are semi aboriginals, such as Savaras, or, as they are called locally, Saharas, who have settled down to steady agriculture, but most of the Bhinjhals, Khonds, Gonds Gaudas, and Kisans still exhibit aboriginal propensities"[1]. The number of field labourers, whether ordinary day labourers or farm servants, was large, representing nearly a quarter of those supported by agriculture. The proportion of women among them was also very marked, 60,000 women being returned as field labourers as compared with 18,000 men.

The industrial classes were neither numerous nor important, with the exception of weavers, such as Koshtas, Bhulias, and Gandas and workers in metal, such as Lohars, Kharuras, Kansaris, and Sonars. There were also a few artisan classes, such as shoe-makers, leather-makers, and carpenters. According to O'Malley, "Shoes are but little used, because the sandiness of the soil obviates the need of them, and also because religious sentiment is strong ; the uses to which leather may be put by the agriculturists are consequently few. Practically all hides are exported in a raw state, and the shoes worn by the well-to-do are imported".

The wholesale grain-dealers were local Brahmans, Cutchi, Muhammedans, and Marwaris, who purchased grain and sold imported cotton thread, salt, tobacco, kerosene, and cloth. The Cutchi trader was a temporary visitor, coming at harvest time to buy from the cultivators and leaving the district in the spring. His capital was usually small, and he was content with quick returns and small profits. Many Cutchis, however, settled permanently at Sambalpur, Jharsuguda, Sohela, and Padmapur and like the Marwaris carried on trade throughout the year. The number of settled Marwari traders in Sambalpur town, Jharsuguda, Bargarh and larger villages, also increased from 1,223 to 2,867 between 1891 and 1901.

In the Census of 1921, it was ascertained that 77·11 per cent of th population of the district were supported by agriculture. The number of field labourers, whether ordinary day labourers or farm servants and

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[1]Bengal District Gazetteer—Sambalpur-L.S.S.O'Malley (1909)

their dependants, was large, amounting to 190,010, which was nearly one-third of the total number of 625,056, supported by agriculture. The number of female field labourers was 60,134 and of male labourers 67,082.

Towards 1932 the Cutchi traders were gradually ousted by the Marwaris, who acquired a predominant position in the grain, and cloth market. Even in the trade of minor forest produce in which they held almost a monopoly, the Cutchis felt the competition of the Marwaris who were attracted by the profits to be made in the *Kendu* leaf trade. The mahua, lac, and myrobalan trade was still largely carried on by Cutchi Muhammedans.

At the Census of 1951 it was found that 79·21 per cent of the population of the district were supported by agriculture. The rest 20·79 per cent derived their sustenance from non-agricultural profession as shown below. 9·11 per cent from production other than cultivation, 1·94 per cent from commerce, 0·55 per cent from transport, and 9·19 per cent from other services and miscellaneous sources.

The broad livelihood categories—agricultural and non-agricultural have been divided into four sub-classes each. Table A, given below shows that the number of persons deriving their principal means of livelihood from agricultural and non-agricultural sectors. It also shows the distribution of persons economically active, inactive and semi-active.

TABLE A

Livelihood Classes and Sub-Classes (1951 Census)

Classes and Sub-Classes	Total	Self-supporting persons	Non-earning dependants	Earning dependants
Agricultural Classes ..	1,031,128	331,230	529,107	170,791
1. Cultivators of land wholly or mainly owned and their dependants.	779,240	237,595	423,289	118,356
2. Cultivation of land wholly or mainly unowned and their dependants.	56,235	17,093	27,192	11,990

Classes and Sub-Classes	Total	Self-supporting persons	Non-earning dependants	Earning dependants
3. Cultivating labourers and their dependants.	185,627	72,206	73,848	39,573
4. Non-cultivating owners of land, agricultural rent receivers and their dependants.	10,026	4,336	4,778	912
Non-Agricultural Classes	270,676	105,436	127,021	28,219
1. Production (other than cultivation).	118,566	43,708	54,460	20,398
2. Commerce ..	25,354	9,552	13,471	2,331
3. Transport ..	7,148	2,365	4,383	400
4. Other services and miscellaneous sources.	119,608	49,811	54,707	15,090

The Census of 1961 revealed that of the total population of 1,508,686 as many as 578,992 are mainly dependant on agriculture. This figure includes both cultivators and agricultural labourer. They constitute 29·6 per cent and 8·8 per cent of the total population.

Out of total population 4,796 persons (or 0·03 per cent) are working in mining, quarrying, livestock, forestry, fishing, plantation, orchards and allied activities. At household industry there are 73,847 persons (or 4·9 per cent). In manufacturing other than household industry the number of persons are 8,349 (or 0·05 per cent). In construction 3,641 persons (or 0·02 per cent), in trade and commerce 10,243 persons (or 0·07 per cent), in transport, storage and communications 4,059 persons (or 0·03 per ceut) and in other services 105, 494 persons (or 7·0 per cent) are working in the district. Besides, there are 719,265 persons (or 47·7 per cent) of the total population who are economically passive having no income of their own and are entirely dependant on other resources. Children, full-time students, old-men, rentiers, women, beggars, and vagrants mostly constitute this class. Owing to the fact that the definition of a 'worker' in 1961 differs from that adopted in previous Census,

it is not possible to compare the 1961 figures, with that of the previous census figures. However, in general the percentage of workers in 1951 Census and 1961 Census are 31·3 and 54·1, respectively.

The district has a few big industries, viz., Orient Paper Mills, Belpahar Refractories, Indian Aluminium, Hira Cement Project Hira Cable Factories, Bhaskar Textile Mills and others. The number of workers employed in these industries are about 10,000. The district is famous throughout India and even abroad for handloom fabrics. It is an indigenous industry. During 1966 67, there were 96 Weavers' Co-operative Societies consisting of 14,426 members. Among minor industries mention may be made of bamboo work and basket making, carpentry, and toy-making. Drums are prepared by Ghasias, which the Kols use largely for their dances. Glass bangles were made in several villages, but the industry was on a very small scale and it could not flourish.

Different occupations in the district are discussed in the following pages.

107. Public Administration

(i) UNION GOVERNMENT EMPLOYMENT

Most of the Union Government employees are of Post and Telegraphs, Railways and Central Excise Departments. These employees of the Union Government receive higher pay compared with the employees of the State Government. They are bound by the same service conditions which are common throughout India. According to 1961 Census, there were 657 persons who were administrators and executive officials of the Central Government.

(ii) STATE GOVERNMENT EMPLOYMENT

The State Government employees enjoy the amenities and privileges which are shared by their co-workers in other districts of the State.

Many of the State Government employees belong to different departments, such as; Forest, Agriculture, Animal Husbandry, Revenue and Excise, Police, Mining and Industry. The clerical staff in different offices are known as ministerial officers. There is an organisation of the clerical staff called Ministerial Officers' Association. This Association is the district branch of an all-Orissa organisation of the same name.

According to 1961 Census, there were 1,596 persons who were administrators and executive officials of the State Government.

(iii) LOCAL-SELF GOVERNMENT EMPLOYMENT

There are four types of Local-Self Government bodies in this district. They have been discussed broadly in Chapter XIV.

They are:—

(1) Municipality, (2) Zilla Parishad, (3) Panchayat Samitis,

(4) Grama Panchayats.

These local bodies deal with various development works. Facilities of Provident Fund, Leave, etc., are open to the employees.

According to 1961 Census, there were 877 persons who were administrators and executive officials of the local bodies.

108. Legal Practice

Most of the lawyers are stationed at Sambalpur and Bargarh which are two important towns of the district. Adovcates are allowed to appear in both Civil and Criminal Courts. The petition-writers write petitions, applications, statements, etc., on behalf of litigants and charge them according to rate fixed by Courts.

According to 1961 Census, there were 234 persons who were following this profession.

109. Medical Practice

Detailed discussion regarding Medical and Health Services is given in Chapter XVI. Persons following medical professions are gradually increasing in number. There are a few private medical practitioners in Urban areas, specially at Sambalpur, Burla, and Bargarh. There were 151 male and 51 female allopathic doctors as known from the 1961 Census. Besides, there were 91 Ayurvedic, and 75 Homeopathic Doctors. There were 111 nurses and nursing attendants.

Lady Health Visitors are posted in the Primary Health Centres attached to the Community Development Blocks. There are 34 Lady Health Visitors in the district. They visit patients within their jurisdiction, render aid and advice before and after child birth and conduct simple delivery cases.

The Pharmacists give medicines as prescribed by the doctors. The experienced Pharmacists also earn through private practice. There were 180 Pharmacists in 1961. Most of them are Government employees or retired persons.

110. Teachers

There has been a considerable increase in the number of persons engaged in Educational service during the past few years. This is due to the increasing provision of educational facilities through Seva Shram, Schools, Colleges, University and different institutions. More attention is now paid to technical education. Besides, it is found that more and more females are entering the teaching profession. According to 1961

Census, there were 4,225 male and 211 female teachers, out of whom 2,835 male and 119 female were in Middle and Primary Schools. There were 219 teachers teaching at different colleges.

111. Men of Arts, Letters, and Science

Different types of persons are included under this broad category. They are musicians, singers, dancers, actors, authors, editors, journalists, architects, engineers, surveyors, artists and social scientists. The following table gives the number of persons, following different avocation of this class, as principal means of livelihood.

Number of persons engaged in Arts, Letters, and Science.

(1961 Census)

Name of occupation	Male	Female	Urban Areas	
			Male	Female
Architects, engineers and surveyors.	292	..	218	..
Social Scientists ..	192	5	192	5
Authors ..	66	1	49	1
Editors, Journalist and related workers.	46	1	46	1
Painters, Decorators and commercial artists.	79	..	79	..
Actors and related workers ..	2	..	..	..
Musicians ..	14	..	4	..
Dancers ..	118	6	13	..

112. Fishermen

The fishermen, known as 'Tiar' or 'Dhibara' catch fish in rivers and tanks, by using different types of fishing implements. There were 2,091 persons in 1961 who were following this occupation.

113. Drivers

The chauffeurs drive motor cars as paid employee. There are also a few taxis plying in the district. The bus drivers drive omnibus to transport passengers from place to place. The truck drivers are transporting goods from place to place over long distances. There are 2,056 truck drivers, 102 bus drivers, and 206 taxi drivers in 1970.

There were 1,030 cycle rickshaw pullers in 1961 plying rickshaws on hire or as paid employees for carrying passengers and transporting light goods to short distances. They are working mostly in urban areas like Sambalpur, Burla, Bargarh, and Jharsuguda.

Besides, there are a few persons who are plying carts drawn by animals. There are a few boat-men who are carrying passenger and goods through waterways. The number of railway engine drivers in 1961 was 20 only.

114. Tailors

A number of persons in urban areas are following this occupation and consequently many tailoring firms are being established in Sambalpur, Burla, Bargarh, and Jharsuguda. The occupation provide whole time employment throughout the year. During the marriage and festive occasions tailors have a profitable business each earning from Rs. 15/- to Rs. 30 per day.

There were 2,064 persons in 1961 working in this occupation.

115. Cobblers

The cobblers or Mochis recondition old, worn out or defective foot-wear to make them serviceable. They perform other repairing jobs such as attaching heals and toe cleafs, stitching ripped seams, patching holes and shining shoes. The experienced cobblers make complete footwear like chappals, sandals, and half shoes.

The value of business done daily varies from Rs. 2 to Rs. 5 according to the nature of work. There were 1,118 persons who were earning their livelihood in 1961 by this occupation.

116. Blacksmiths

Iron smelting and the manufacture of iron articles are chiefly done by Loharas. They are found chiefly in Borasambar, Laira, Paharsirgira, and Rampur. The village Blacksmiths manufacture agricultural implements such as plough shares. A few smiths are also able to manufacture, in fairly tempered metal, the firmly curved hatchet which was once the battle-axe of this country. The articles now commonly made are the hoe, and the spoons and strainers used in cooking rice. According to 1961 Census, there were 3,775 persons who followed this occupation for their livelihood.

117. Brass and Bell-metals

There are a number of Kansari families in Sambalpur town work only in bell-metals. Kansaris are also found at Tukra, Remenda, Barpali, Bijepur, and Katapalli. Besides Kansaris, Kharuras also

work in bell-metal and the articles most commonly turned out are *lotas*, bowls, basins, plates, saucers, drinking-mugs, water-cans, lamp-stands and pipes, besides the curious boat-shaped anklets worn by many women. The number of bell-metal workers in the district is not known.

118. Gold and Silver-Smiths

Jewellery of gold and silver are made by the local caste of Sonars. The articles most commonly made which is to be seen on the necks even of cooly women, is the *Khagada* a band of silver lying flat on the bosom and encircling the neck as a thick round wire. Other common articles of silver are the bangles, armlets, and anklets worn by women. The usual gold ornaments are armlets, necklets, nose-buttons, ear-rings for the lobe and tip of the ear, and finger-rings. The customers mostly give silver and gold bullion to the goldsmiths who prepare the ornament to get their wages. In a few cases, some local trader places orders with the gold-smiths and pay wages for the work done, the bullion being supplied by the trader concerned. On an average a goldsmith receives about twelve annas to a rupee a day as his remuneration and the annual income of a family from this source varies between Rs. 150 to Rs. 350. According to 1961 Census, there were 2,344 persons.

119. Stone Carving

Carving in stone is the hereditary function of a caste known as Sansias. The caste has two subdivisions, the Beharia and the Khandait Oriya. The former still practise carving, but the craft has been given up by the latter, who are said to have been formerly soldiers in the Raja's army. The stone generally used for carving small images is a black stone resembling marble or a green stone like jade, but a fine red sandstone called *dalima* is used for larger figures. The stone mostly used is quarried at Sason and is well adapted for chiselling. According to 1961 Census, there were 166 persons who were stone-cutters, tone carvers, and stone-dressers.

120. Potters

The potters are known as *Kumbharas* by caste. The potters shape and form articles of different varieties from clay by moulding in centre of flat wheel.

According to 1961 Census, there were 4,453 persons who were working as potters and brick-layers.

121. Biri Makers

Several small *Biri* factories have sprung up in the district for the manufacture of *Biris*. This industry has been fostered by the development of the trade in *Kendu* leaf, which is extensively used in *Biri* manufacture. The Biri-makers make *Biris* by hand by cutting the leaves into

pieces according to appropriate size. Then they put the filling tobacco and roll it with fingers to make *Biri* of desired shape and size. The sized *Biris* are tied into bundles and labels are pasted over. According to 1961 Census, 7,445 persons were engaged in this occupation.

122. Weavers

Bhulia, Kustha, and Ganda are the three main castes of weavers. The Gandas belonged to the Scheduled Caste. Their techniques are rather crude and the products coarse. The Bhulia is a skilled weaver and produces superior quality cotton fabrics. Both the Ganda and the Bhulia, however, work in cotton yarn. Sambalpur has also a traditional reputation for its tussar-silk products and kusthas specialize in this. A few years ago, tussar-silk cocoons used to be reared. This is no longer the case. Now-a-days, cocoons have to be imported from Chaibasa in Bihar and Raipur in Madhya Pradesh. The consequent difficulties are forcing the Kustha to weave cotton fabrics. Villages like Barpali, Tora and Remunda are traditional centres of handloom weaving. Most of the weavers have their looms in their homes and also market their own product. The weavers produce sarees and other fabrics of magnificent designs. They can exhibit considerable taste in colour and variety of pattern and even the coarsest cloths are woven with a dainty border. The Bhulias, who make the best of the Sambalpur cotton cloths have been less affected by the competition of machine-made cloth than the Gandas, who weave a cheaper and coarser cloth. The Bhulia works for the well-to-do and though his customers appreciate the lower price and the lighter texture of the machine-made stuff, they buy the better and dearer article because it wears much longer, keeps its colour and is in the end cheaper. Now various weavers' Co-operative Societies have been organised and the sarees are in much demand. According to 1961 Census, there were 28,258 persons engaged in this occupation who were either weavers, spinners, or dyers.

123. Hair-Cutters

There are a few hair cutting saloons in the urban areas as there is a tendency among the barbers, in the recent years, to have fixed establishments in some important locality. Most of the shops are small establishments each engaging 1—4 persons. Only in a few saloons outside workers are employed. But even in such saloons the owners work side by side with their employees.

The services of village barbers are mostly traditional. They move from street to street to attend the calls. The Oriya Bhandari caste people pursue the occupation. In ceremonies like *upanayan* and marriages and even in funerals the presence and services of a barber are essential.

According to 1961 Census, there were 1,200 persons engaged in this occupation.

124. Washermen

The washermen can be divided into two classes those who carry on the work of washing, cleaning and ironing of clothes at home and those who have shops of their own in the bazar area. In the town areas the number of laundries are on the increase. The services of a washerman like that of a barber are traditional specially in rural areas.

According to 1961 Census, there were 4,477 persons who were engaged in laundry service.

125. Domestic Servants

Cooks, water-carriers, door-keepers, watchmen and other indoor servants are included in this class. These persons are mainly employed by institutions or by rich and well-to-do people. The cooks are paid in cash and food. The domestic servants are mostly women. They clean utensils, wash clothss, sweep floors and take care of babies.

By 1961 Census, there were 1,667 persons who were earning their livelihood by this occupation.

126. Murhi (Puffed) and Chura (Beaten Rice) Makers

Making puffed rice (Murhi) and beaten rice (Chura) is a traditional occupation of the Keuta community. Mostly female members of the family are engaged in the business. Apart from Keutas, singlewomen, widows and others quite often do this work to earn a living. This business requires no capital. The net income is about 3 annas per seer of puffed rice, or about 4½ annas per rupee worth of produce. The number of persons engaged in this occupation is not known.

127. Bamboo Basket Weavers

Bamboo basket-making is done by persons belonging to Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, like Sahara, Bedhara or Turi castes. They manufacture household and agricultural requirements, like baskets crude bamboo umbrella, etc. They get an average annual net income of Rs. 100 or so per family. Most families also do repair work for various households and are paid in cash as well as in kind. Sometime they also get food for the day. According to 1961 Census, there were 7,744 persons working in this occupation.

CHAPTER IX

ECONOMIC TRENDS

128. Introductory

Vast changes have taken place during the last two decades. A visitor to Sambalpur today would feel like Rip Van Winkle waking up after long years of sleep. A huge lake, large areas criss-crossed with canals, corn swaying in the fields in summer, indeed a Green Revolution, electric and telephone wires covering the sky, H. T. Electric towers looking like huge skeletons standing in fields and forests to carry electric power, are all signs of a new look. Growth of heavy and light industries in and around Sambalpur, Jharsuguda, and Bargarh has transformed the pastoral countryside into centres humming with activity and concentration of people both from within and outside the district. Life in rural areas is also very different *Zamindars*, *Gauntias*, and *Chaukidars* are no longer there. Gone also are *Deraghars*, and *Dharsas*. One who knew Sambalpur of old may view these with nostalgia. All today and in future will regret the rapid disappearance of wild life. The majestic tiger. the cunning leopard, and pretty spotted deer are nearing extinction. Gone also is lac, the resin of a wild insect. *Tassar*, the strongest of all textiles has so deteriorated that people prefer synthetic fibres. You no longer see cocoons being sold in village markets. Where you could see hundreds of bullock carts moving leisurely on dust roads, you now find Diesel trucks racing on black topped roads polluting the atmosphere by the masses of smoke emitted by their exhausts. The *Dhenki* which used to pound rice is no longer seen or heard. It has been replaced by rice-hullers and giant rice mills. The old way of life is gone for ever.

Sambalpur is situated in the North–Western part of Orissa, and is the second largest district in the State with an area of 6,764·6 sq. miles. It has 11·24 per cent of the State's area and 8·6 per cent of the State's population and ranks second and fourth respectively among all the districts. The density of 223 persons per sq. mile is below the State average of 292 persons. The average rainfall is 60 inches or more. The main river is the Mahanadi which flows from North-West to South-East for a distance of about 90 miles with a number of tributaries. But the district had no canals prior to the construction of Hirakud Dam and the people were depending largely on rain water for *Kharif* crops and on tanks, Katas, wells and rivulets for their *Rabi* crops. If any year the rains were scanty, the local water reservoirs never got filled up and naturally no water was available for irrigation during *Rabi* seasons. Before the coming of Hirakud canals, most of the crops were grown in *Kharif*

season and autumn and winter paddy predominated the total cropped area. 83 per cent of the total cropped area was under paddy, 2 per cent on other cereals, 10 per cent on pulses, 3 per cent on oilseeds, and 2 per cent on cash-crops and other minor products. The area under cash-crop was insignificant. Sugarcane was the only cash-crop. In *Rabi* season practically no crops were grown. The double-cropped area was only 1·88 per cent. Thus, the vast agricultural population remained unemployed almost half of the agricultural year.

But this problem has been solved to some extent by Hirakud canals. Water of the Hirakud reservoir is made available to the cultivators of Sambalpur and Balangir districts through the main canals with irrigation potential of 6 lakh acres annually. The canals are supplying water throughout the year serving the *Kharif* and *Rabi* crops. The Bargarh canal is the longest canal which flows for 55 miles, with a culturable commandable area of 312,000 acres. The Sason canal commands a culturable area of 68,000 acres in the Sambalpur Subdivision. After 14 miles it has bifurcated into two distributaries of 'Huma' and 'Parmanpur', serving Sason, Sambalpur Sadar, Jujomura, and Dhama Police-stations. The Sambalpur distributary, and Hirakud distributary are the smallest with a culturable area of 11,772 acres spread over Sambalpur and Hirakud Police-stations.

Hirakud canals cover 10 Community Development Blocks (area 945,828 acres) in this district with a total net irrigated area of 230,000 acres, i. e., net physical area excluding double-cropped area. Almost all the villages o Bheden Block are irrigated through Hirakud canals. Bargarh subdivision covers most of the irrigated Community Development Blocks and more than one-third of the total irrigated villages of Hirakud canals. It has passed through a plain land having good soil. The villages are developed in agriculture and the economically active population of the irrigated villages mostly depend on agriculture alone for their livelihood. The soil is mostly of clay, loam, sandy and sandy-loam, clay loam and sandy-clay. Most of the soil in the irrigated area is red soil which produces good crop.

After the coming of canal water the cultivators started double cropping and rotation of crop to maximise agricultural production. In the year 1958–59 when canal water was made available the cultivation of Summer paddy during *Rabi* season was introduced for the first time. In the year 1961–62 the area under Summer paddy was about 30,000 acres and covered 95 per cent cropped area of the *Rabi* season. The cropping pattern has undergone a change in the last six years and two principal paddy crops are usually grown in the irrigated villages. The *Rabi* season is now a full working season for the cultivators and they remain busy throughout the year. The yield rate of summer paddy is

increasing from year to year. Groundnut in *Rabi* season is also a new crop. Summer vegetables and banana cultivation have been possible. Ragi, hybrid maize, jowar, and summer *til* are the other crops which have been introduced. On the other hand in unirrigated villages the land remains fallow and the cultivators remain idle almost half of the agricultural year and sometimes migrate for daily wages to the nearby towns. Jute has also been introduced in the irrigated Blocks of Sambalpur-I, and Bargarh. Improved variety of potato is being grown and found to be very profitable. The area under this crop is increasing from year to year. A few crops like field-pea, and gram are gradually disappearing from the Hirakud ayacut area as more profitable crops like Dalua or Summer paddy, groundnut, and potato have taken their place. Other minor crops like tobacco, winter vegetables, chillies, garlic, and sweet potato are also grown with an increased acreage. The sugar-cane area has also increased substantially.

Mould iron ploughs and Japanese weeders have been introduced. Among the improved varieties of paddy high yielding varieties like 1242, BAM-9 in wet land, T. 90, 141, 1141 in medium land, PTB-10 in high land, IR-8, Taichung, Jaya, and Padma are getting popular with the cultivators. Orchards are growing as people are interested in lemon, orange, guava, papaya, plaintain, and mango trees in their back-yards. Pisciculture, horticulture, and poultry rearing are gaining momentum. Improvement of the cattle breed has been taken up by supplying of Haryana and Red Sindhi bulls, buffaloes and by the preventive and curative activities through a large number of stockmen. Simultaneously the expansion of agriculture, communication, education, health, water-supply, housing, and industrial activities have been sponsored through Blocks. Family Planning, and Maternity and Child Welfare measures are also receiving popularity.

The Intensive Agriculture District Programme has been started in the year 1961-62. The participants are more in irrigated area than in the non-irrigated part and the concentration is more in the size of holdings having 5 to 10 acres of land.

Since the Hirakud Dam Project has given a real boost to agriculture, it will not be incorrect to say that a green revolution has occurred. Farmers have gradually acquired self-sufficiency in as wide sphere as possible.

A break-through has been achieved in the agricultural sphere. Life seems to be humming in irrigated villages. A glorious future is awaiting the farmers. Before the construction of the project the cultivators were entirely depending upon the nature. As the land was previously rain-fed they were accustomed to grow only one crop in a year. But after the implementation of the project the nature of land changed and along with it the fate of the cultivators also underwent a

spectacular change. *At* and *Bahal* lands which were then less productive now giving good yield to add to the fortune of the toiler. Land is now found being covered either under *Khariff* or *Dalua*, or vegetable. Practically no rest the field enjoys nor do the cultivators. They are now accustomed to hard labour and from their hard labour a bright future is slowly emerging.

There are regional disparities within the district in economic development. Bargarh Subdivision with irrigation has moved much faster than Padampur Subdivision which is handicapped not only by lack of irrigation but also by periodic droughts. Consequently there is a tendency for population to move north towards Bargarh. Also there has been considerable immigration of farming labour from Andhra Pradesh to the neighbour-hood of Attabira.

"The *Per capita* gross income from agriculture comes to Rs. 196·47 for irrigated villages and Rs. 131·44 for unirrigated villages. In taking the average size of family and the *per capita* income from agriculture income per household comes to Rs. 1,149 for irrigated villages and Rs. 679 for unirrigated villages[1]." The average annual income of farming family was only Rs. 326·39* in the year 1954-55 when there was no irrigation. But in 10 years time after irrigation the income of the farming family has substantially increased.

Handloom has been the most important industry The principal centres are Barpali, Bijepur, Laumunda, Pata, Kadobahal, Khuntapal, Jamla, Bandhapali, Top, Remenda, Bheden, Mahalakata, Jhilminda, Bhatli-Kushanpuri, Singhapali, and Chichinda. Sambalpur town, and Tukra are famous for Bell-metal industries. With the generation of electric power from Hirakud a number of small-scale and large-scale industries have grown around it. The Aluminium plant, the Cable factory, Structural workshop at Hirakud, the Orient Paper Mill, the Collieries and the Caustic Soda Factroy at Brajarajnagar, the Belpahar Refractories, the Cement Factory at Bargarh and several other industries are the outcome of cheap power available from Hirakud. Apart from these large-scale industries there are also a few small-scale industries, such as saw mills, Biri factories, rope works, match factory, soap factory, chemical industries, automobile engineering, fabricating works, and Ice Factories. Sambalpur is one of the many places of the State, well-known for its wooden toys and dolls. As the Simul tree grows in plenty, which yields easily to the stroke of the carpenter's chisel the village carpenters carve out from it a wide range of attractive toys, using bright indigenous colours. The Dhankauda Tile-making Co-operative Society, Attabira Sugarcane Processing Marketing Co-operative Society, the Bargarh Sugar Factory are the few notable Panchayat

1. Report on the Benefits of Hirakud Irrigation—P—194

*Economic Survey of Orissa, Vol. I, Page—494

Industries. Besides there are a few Panchayat Industries such as Carpenter's Co-operative Society, and Blacksmithy Industrial Co-operative Society at Jharsuguda, Iron Works Co-operative Society, and Carpenter's Co-operative Society at Barpali, and Carpentry Co-operative Society at Padampur.

Rice is the staple export of the district. Other exports include oil-seeds, hemp, hides, and forest products such as timber, lac, 'Kendu, leaves, and 'Mahua' flowers. The principal imports are salt, sugar, provisions, yarn and various cereals. The shops in the villages deal in essential food commodities, whereas in the urban area, better equipped shops are available, which not only deal in essential food articles but also in various kinds of fancy and luxury goods.

At the end of the Second Plan period (1956-57 to 1960-61), the district had 21 Blocks covering an area of 3,855 sq. miles. A total expenditure of Rs. 1,08,16,795 was incurred in the district on the community development programme up to the end of 1960-61. Among the achievements under this programme up to the end of 1960-61, the important ones are completion of 113 minor irrigation projects, functioning of 827 Co-operative Societies, and opening of 8 Primary Health Centres. 18,508 adults have been made literate and 177 Mahila Samitis with a total membership of 5,681, were functioning as a part of social education programme. The achievements under communication programme include the laying of 417 miles of roads and construction of 378 bridges and culverts.

129. Economic Land-Marks

In the first decade of the present century, recovery from the effects of the famine of 1899 was rapid due to a succession of good harvests except in 1901-03 and 1907-08. The first seven years of the decade beginning with 1911 were prosperous. The harvests were good and people were contented. But the closing year of the decade was not free from calamities such as flood and epidemics. The economy of the district of the closing years of the census decade 1911—21 was affected by the Influenza epidemic which spread all over the world in 1918 and 1919. Large number died and larger numbers suffered on account of which crop and cattle raising was handicapped So the decade 1921—30 started with a year of struggle for recovery from the calamities of the previous decade. The plentiful harvest of 1921 helped the people to recoup fast. The remaining 9 years of the decade were marked with steady progress on account of a series of good harvests except in the year 1928. There were high floods in 1936 in Kuchinda Subdivision, and in 1937 in the Sambalpur Subdivision, but it did not cause any considerable damage to the crop or to property. One important step towards industrial advancement of the district was taken when

the Orient Paper Mills were established at Brajarajnagar in the year 1937-38. During the decade 1931—40, harvests were excellent and there was no shortage of foodgrains anywhere. During 1941—50 general peace and prosperity of the district continued, though it was affected by conditions of the World War. Although general rise in price-level and other war conditions adversely affected the material conditions of the district, the position improved considerably with the execution of the notable multipurpose project at Hirakud in the year 1946. Many gainful side occupations developed in the wake of this great project. As a result, there was a wave of immigrants to participate in the economic prosperity of the district. The last decade 1951—61 is a period of economic prosperity when peace and contentment swayed over the district. Electrification of all the urban areas and some of the rural areas during the decade was a step taken in the direction of providing modern amenities for better living. In the industrial field, the reputed handloom industry found its way to foreign markets, particularly United States of America. The establishment of Indian Alluminium Factory and its ancillary industries at Hirakud marks the beginning of large-scale industrialisation. The establishment of Engineering and Medical Colleges at Burla for furtherance of technical education and colleges at Bargarh Deogarh, Padampur, Larambha, Jharsuguda, and Kuchinda under private enterprise are note-worthy achievements in the field of education

The south-western part of the district, covering the greater part of the Bargarh Subdivision, is the granary of northern Orissa. It is well drained by two large tributaries of the Mahanadi, namely, Danta and Jira. Though the jungle has been mostly cleared in many localities yet the general landscape is beautiful, as groves and orchards fring village sites. The central part covering Sambalpur Subdivision is the undulating submoutane tract with isolated hills to be commonly seen rising abruptly from the plains and with rocky ridges here and there and deep ravines cut by drainge channels. The area generally lends itself to good cultivation, in restricted areas though mainly, along the valleys of Mahanadi, Ib, Champali and Tikkira, as well as to the east of the Sambalpur-Jharsuguda Road.

130. The General level of prices

Till the district was opened up by the railway, prices were very low as was only to be expected in a land locked tract with little or no means of exporting its surplus. O' Malley, in his Sambalpur District Gazetteer written in 1909, wrote with reference to the changes brought about by the opening of the railway and the increased price of agricultural produce. "Since the advent of the railway, the prices of agricultural produce have been doubled. Twenty years ago, the price of rice in Sambalpur town frequently fell to 40 to 50 seer*, over a year's average, and in outlaying

* 1 seer—0·933 Kilogram.

villages it could be had at 80 seers. Three years ago it was reported that in Sambalpur the price never fell below 20 seers, that the lowest rate in the villages was 25 seers, while the average price in the Bargarh market was usually 25 seers cheaper than in Sambalpur and 15 seers in the interior, while in 1908 owing to a short crop locally, and a heavy demand from outside rice has been selling at about 8 seers per rupee in Sambalpur and 9 seers at Bargarh. The same upward tendency was equally marked in the case of other products. For example, the price of *til* before railway export became possible was seldom less than 20 seers. In 1887, it was reported that the average rate was 17 seers whereas the average for the 10 years ending 1901-02 was 11 seers. The wholesale price of pulses had similarly risen from 24 seers to 12 seers. During the period from 1909 to 1912 the average price of common rice, wheat, gram, and salt was 14 seers, 11 seers, 14 seers, and 16 seers per rupee respectively.

Cobden-Ramsay, in his 'Feudatory States of Orissa' pointed out that, the opening up of the Bamra ex-State (present Kuchinda and Deogarh Subdivisions) by the advent of the railway had enabled the farmers to dispose of surplus stocks at handsome profits with a general rise in prices. During the period 1902-03 to 1907-08, the average rate of rice, mung, biri, wheat and salt was 18 seers, 16 seers 20 seers, 8 seers and 17½ seers per rupee respectively.

In the Rairakhol Subdivision during the same period the average price of rice, mung, urid, Kulthi, and salt as available was 20 seers, 12 seers, 24 seers, 60 seers, and 10 seers per rupee respectively.

In the year 1914-15, in Deogarh and Kuchinda Subdivisions, the price ruled high throughout the year owing to the great demand from outside. The price of rice varied in between 14 seers to 11 seers per rupee. In Rairakhol Subdivision, in the same year, price of common rice as available per rupee was 12 seers in the month of April and May, 9½ seers from June to October, and 14 seers from November to the end of the year.

Next year, there was a general rise of price in daily necessities throughout the year and the price of rice varied from 16 to 18 seers per rupee. Pulses were also dear. In the same year, in Rairakhol Subdivision, the price of common rice was 10 seers per rupee in the beginning of the year, but fell to 9 seers in July. It rose to 13½ seers in December and towards the close of the year reverted again to 9 seers per rupee.

The year 1916-17 was on the whole a fairly prosperous one, and enabled the people to recover from the stringent conditions of the preceding lean years. But the year 1918-19, was marked by a serious failure of the crops. The price of commodities imported from outside continued to rule high especially of cloth. Even the well-to-do classes who would in the ordinary course have fitted themselves out with new clothes had

for some-time past been carrying on with old clothes. The poorer classes found the provision of clothing as a serious burden. However, the result was not without its advantages. The local weavers were able to earn good wages as a number of clothes used then were locally woven articles.

The year 1919-20, was marked with severe distress and it was found necessary to import rice in large quantities. Rice was sold at 7 seers per rupee in Sambalpur. In the next three years rice was sold in between 16 seers to 10 seers in Deogarh and Kuchinda Subdivisions and 18 seers to 10 seers in Rairakhol Subdivision.

In the year 1924-25, the general prospect was somewhat gloomy in July and August, and in most of the cases the *Rabi* crops saved the situation. The maximum and minimum price of rice was 16 to 10½ seers, and 12 seers to 9 seers per rupee in Deogarh and Kuchinda Subdivisions and in Rairakhol Subdivision respectively. In the next year the copious rainfall was in marked contrast to the scanty and ill-distributed rains of the preceding year. The price of rice remained constant in Deogarh and Kuchinda Subdivisions while it varied in Rairakhol Subdivision. In the next year though the price was a little higher in Deogarh, and Kuchinda Subdivisions it was cheap in Rairakhol Subdivision.

In the year 1927-28 the maximum and minimum price of rice available per rupee, in Deogarh and Kuchinda Subdivisions and Rairakhol Subdivision was 13 seers to 8 seers, and 15 seers to 11 seers respectively. More or less, the same trend was maintained in the subsequent years though in the year 1929-30 the maximum price of rice went up to 16 seers per rupee in Deogarh, and Kuchinda Subdivisions while the minimum was the same as that of the year 1927-28, i. e., 8 seers per rupee.

King, in his 'Sambalpur District Gazetteer' published in the year 1932 wrote, "Since the advent of the railway the prices of agricultural produce have quadrupled. During the past 25 years, the price of rice has risen steadily. The average price from 1906 to 1925 was 10 seers for the rupee in Sambalpur. In the year 1926 the price rose to 7 seers and 6 chittacks".

During the year 1930 the average price fell to 11 seers, due to the general economic depression which started. This depression in rice trade resulted in extraordinarily cheap rice, so that in February, 1931 it was possible to obtain coarse rice at 20 seers per rupee. This low price was exceptional and did not last long. Pulses, til and gur were also cheep during the year 1931, selling at 14 seers, 10 seers, and 10 seers respectively.

The price level shot up with the declaration of the Second World War. Inflationary spiral was set in motion and the price level showed a steep rise, which brought in its wake economic distress. The prices

of nearly all food grains went up from the year 1942. Between 1943 to 1947 price of rice ranged between 3·9 to 3·5 seers a rupee. Price of rice was, however, steady for the years 1943, 1944, and 1945. Wheat, gram, rape and mustard became dearer.

It was expected that with the passing over of the War years, the general food situation would ease but it did not, and the price ruled high. Prices of rice, wheat, gram, rape and mustard continued to soar unusually, from the year 1948. During the fifties, the prices of all commodities rose high, and rice, the principal food, was available only at 2·4 to 2·3 seers a rupee.

Soon after the 3rd Five-Year Plan (1961-62 to 1965-66) was launched, the price which had been steadily rising ever since the Second World War, began to gallop. In recent years, people have been hard hit, and it is becoming difficult for lower, and middle class people to make both ends meet. Rice was available at 1·6 seers a rupee in 1967. Fine rice is so costly, that one gets less than a kilogram per rupee. So also is the case with other foodgrains and daily requirements.

A table regarding the harvest prices of rice, wheat, gram, rape and mustard, per maund of 40 standard seers is given as appendix.

131. General level of Wages

O' Malley, in his 'Sambalpur District Gazetteer', noted that "Owing to the rise in the price of rice, the wages of an ordinary day-labourer have risen from 2 annas to 2½ annas a day and in 1908, owing to the further rise in the price of foodgrains, the wages of adult labourers increased to 3 annas a day, which is also the daily wages paid to road coolies working in the town of Sambalpur and its vicinity".

Agricultural labourers were of two kinds, the 'bhutiar' or day labourer and the 'guti' or farm servant. The bhutiar was paid at the rate of 1½ seers per day's work, but 2 seers and 1 chittak at the harvest period and 5 seers and 3 chittaks over time wage for a night's threshing.

Farm servants, called 'Gutis' were generally hired by the year and received a monthly wage of 56¼ seers and also a bonus at harvest time of 3 purugs of paddy that is 11¼ maunds.

In the summer season his employer presented him with a cloth to protect his head from the sun. On special occasions, such as birth death, or marriage, he was entitled to receive a loan of Rs. 5 to Rs. 10 which was free from interest and was deducted from his harvest bonus.

For each 'madan' the field servants were receiving about 31 seer of paddy per night. A 'madan' was estimated to yield six purugs (22½ maunds) of paddy usually spread out on the threshing yard at a time. For threshing one 'madan' at least three men are required to work

alternately, each for about three hours from 9·0 P. M. to early morning. After day break all three work together. If, however, a cultivator has more than three field servants, they all attended and divided the night's work between them. To thresh a 'madan' of paddy, eight to ten bullocks are required, and these are driven by each man for about three hours at a time. At Sun rise all the straw is carefully removed, and the grain is stacked round the pole in the centre of the threshing floor. The winnowing begins, the grain being allowed to fall from the winnowing fan and then fanned. After the winnowing is over—a task which takes three men about six hours for one madan—all the husks are collected and are further winnowed by the field servants. It is further supplemented by one 'sup' of paddy per madan, i.e., about 5 to 8 tambis (about 5 seers 2 chattaks to 8 seers 4 chattaks). The latter allowance was called 'Liakhia' and the former 'pol'. Thus for each madan the field servants receive about 30 to 33 tambis of paddy per night. The wives of the gutis are bound to "lip" the threshing floor after every third threshing, i.e., pastes it afresh with cow-dung and earth. For this work they get no wages, and if they refuse to work, their husbands forfeit half the allowance of 'Pol' [1].

On engaging a 'guti', it was a common practice to give him a few rupees as earnest money, which he had to pay back without interest when his service was over. If, however, he threw up the situation, interest was charged at 50 per cent, and this had the effect of rendering the service of most gutis practically permanent.

There was another class of labourer, known as 'kuthia' that is to say, a boy or oldman who was not equal to as much work as a full-grown adult. A labourer of this class was paid according to agreement, some times at the rate of 31 seers to 41 seers per month.

During the period 1902-03 to 1907-08 in the ex-State of Bamra (Present Kuchinda and Deogarh Subdivisions) the average daily wage for a mason, carpenter, blacksmith, and ordinary coolie was Re. 0·17, Re. 0·19, Re. 0·14, and Re. 0·12 respectively. During the same period the average wage for a superior mason and carpenter, a common mason and carpenter, superior blacksmith, common blacksmith, and ordinary coolie, was Re. 0·62, Re. 0·25, Re. 0·77, Re. 0·19, and Re. 0·15, respectively in the ex-State of Rairakhol.

The labouring class in the Rairakhol Subdivision was generally divided into three classes such as, Gutis, Kuthias, and Khamaris.

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1. F. C. King, Bihar and Orissa District Gazetteers, Sambalpur, page 162-136

The 'gutis' received a monthly wage in kind and after the harvest was over they received from 8 maunds to 10 maunds of paddy according to the character of the harvest. This was known as their 'Nistar' (yearly reward) or 'Bartan'. They also received three pieces of cloth annually. Their engagements began from the month of January-February.

The 'Kuthias' were given no monthly wage, but fed in their employer's house and got as their yearly reward from 4 maunds to 5 maunds of paddy after receiving 3 pieces of cloth. Their duties were mainly to act as herdsmen and assist the 'gutis'. They were also engaged from the month of January-February.

The Khamaris were superior class labourers and they acted as head labourers or foreman in charge of the classes mentioned above. They received monthly wages in kind and a yearly reward of 12 maunds of paddy and 4 pieces of cloth.

In the year 1913 the average wage for unskilled labour, blacksmith, carpenter, and gharami was. Re. 0·12, Re. 0·25, Re. 0·25 and Re. 0·15 respectively in Sambalpur and its vicinity.

In the Thirties, wages, whether for skilled or unskilled labour were still mostly paid in kind. The village blacksmith was paid 1 seer and ½ chattak of rice for mending a plough share or preparing a sickle, and the same quantity of paddy for sharpening four share-ploughs. The washer-man was given 20 seers and 10 chattaks of paddy in the case of each adult and 10 seers and 5 chattaks for each boy or girl, as his yearly wage, besides food on the day when he was given clothes to wash, and special fees in rice on births, deaths, and marriages. The barber was getting 20 seers and 10 chattaks of paddy per annum for a man and 10 seers and 5 chattaks for a boy. In some cases, however, these village servants hold service land in which case they served the gauntia without any remuneration. Carpenters were very few in number. Even in the town of Sambalpur, there were not more than 30 carpenters, most of whom were decidedly unskilled. Unskilled labour was , as a rule, and field labour invariably, paid in kind.

The Bhutiars were paid at the rate of 1½ seers for an ordinary spell of labour, but 2 seers and 1 chattak for a spell of harvest labour, and 5 ⅛ seers to 8 ¼ seers overtime wages for a night's threshing. The duration of work was a half day's spell during the ploughing season, for the condition of the plough-cattle was so poor that they cannot be worked, for more than five hours at a time. Consequently, the plough-man usually worked for one spell only. Women who were usually employed on transplanting and weeding, also worked only in the morning. At harvest time, however, and for all work on which oxen were not required the field labourer worked both morning and after-noon his full day's wage being equal to about 2 seers of husked rice.

A puja called Kadobisti was performed by the villagers during the month of Sraban, at which offerings were made to the village goddess. After this ceremony was over, the labourers worked in the fields both morning and evening. Before it was performed, no field labourer would work generally, after he took his mid-day-meal.

The 'Gutis' were generally worked by the year and received a monthly wage of 3 khandis of paddy, 61-7/8 seers, and also a bonus at harvest time of 12 $\frac{5}{8}$ maunds of paddy. In the case of an old and trusted farm-servant, it was usual for his master to allow him, instead of this bonus the cultivation of two plots of land, in the uplands and low lands, with an area of about one acre. As he was allowed to use his master's cattle, this privilege added considerably to his annual earnings, which were frequently sufficient to allow him to acquire small plots of tenancy lands in his own right. The 'Guti' also had a number of other emoluments. If sugar-cane, pulses or oil-seeds were grown, he was allowed a small quantity from each crop. If he threshes on moon-light night, at harvest time, he was given an overtime wage at the end of threshing, the occasion being called "Kallacharani" that is the leavings of the threshing floor. The overtime wage above mentioned, consisted of all the grain blown off with the husks during winnowing, besides one 'Kula' (winnowing-fan) full of paddy per 'madan'. For threshing each 'madan' the field servants received about 31 seers to 34 seers of paddy per night.

A kuthia during the thirties was paid according to agreement sometime at the rate of 31 seers to 41 $\frac{1}{4}$ seers a month. In the Bargarh Subdivision, a 'kuthia' was a boy who was kept in the house and was given his food and clothes and a present at the end of the year.

The following was the average earnings of casual agricultural labourers in the Sambalpur zone, according to the survey, conducted by the Gokhale Institute of Politics and Economics, during the year 1954-55[1].

Nature of work	No of labourers in sample	Average No. of days worked per labourer	Average value of payments in kind (in Rs.)	Average cash wages (Rs.)
1. In agriculture both in and outside the village.	45	119·6	54·5	33·8
2. In non-agriculture, both in and outside the village.	40	122·8	4·4	114·5
3. Total work done	53	194 2	49·5	115·1

1. Economics of a Multiple-purpose River Dam, P. 50

Sambalpur had a larger proportion of annual farm servants than Cuttack and Puri[1].

The following information, pertains to the total wage earnings of 36 attached agricultural labourers (farm servants in the Sambalpur zone sample[2]).

Total receipts :

Cash	..	Rs.	800·00
Kind (in value)	..	Rs.	7,712·00
Total	..	Rs.	8,512·00

"In Northern zone the kothias in the Bolangir Patna district were usually paid at the following rates. Both adolescents and adult males were employed at the same rate :

		Annual	Income
6 'Khaais' or 90 seers of paddy		Rs.	12·00
Meals	..	Rs.	84·00
Cloth	..	Rs.	7·00
For extra work in threshing (from 7 P. M. to 3 A. M.) at the rate of ¾ seers of paddy per day (for 20 days per year).		Rs.	10·12
Total	..	Rs.	113·12

Adult males were also employed as Halias. An advance of Rs.20 to Rs. 30 was given free of interest at the beginning of the year and was adjusted towards wages. The wage rate was as follows :—

Wage : Nine maunds of Paddy		Rs.	58·50
One maund five seers of paddy per month.		Rs.	87·75
Cloth	..	Rs.	8·00
Extra for threshing (2 maunds and 24 seers of paddy).		Rs.	17·06
Total	..	Rs.	171·31

1. Economics of a Multiple-purpose River dam, P. 51.
2. Report of the Agricultural labour enquiry, Vol. III, 1953, P.75

Similar wage rates were prevalent in the Kalahandi, and Sambalpur districts, but the total annual remuneration came to about Rs. 163 and Rs. 133 respectively. Children were employed usually as graziers and were allowed six maunds of paddy worth Rs. 39 a year [1].

During the Sixties owing to the rise in the price of rice and other foodgrains the wages of ordinary day-labourers rose. In 1957, skilled labourers, such as carpenter, cobbler, and blacksmith were available at Rs. 3·09 to Rs. 3·32, and Rs. 1·96 respectively. A male field labourer was available at Rs. 1·05, a female at Re. 0·74, and a child at Re. 0·50. In case of other agricultural labourers, a male in 1957 got Rs. 1·04, a female Re. 0·72, and a child Re. 0·59 per day. This rate of wages was prevalent up to 1963, with slight changes. Now a days, the wage rates of both skilled and unskilled labourers have gone high. A good carpenter gets Rs. 7 to Rs. 8 per day. A mason gets Rs. 7 per day, and an ordinary male labourer Rs. 3 per day.

It is very often alleged that employment of rural labour is uncertain and precarious in character. If the supply of labour is much in excess of the requirements labour has to face this uncertainty of employment. In busy seasons of farm operations labourers are in great demand and for those few months in the year they do not face any uncertainty.

The percentage given below shows the distribution of rural labour according to their mode of employment. This will help to ascertain the usual patterns according to which labourers are employed during the year.

Male labourer casual	..	50	Per cent
Female labourer casual	..	4·89	Per cent
Male labourer weekly	..	0·54	Per cent
Female labourer weekly	..	0·54	Per cent
Male labourer monthly	..	4·35	Per cent
Female labourer monthly	..	1·09	Per cent
Male labourer annual	..	38·59	Per cent

It would be seen from the above figures that the vast majority of labourers, consisting of 54·89 per cent of the total labour population is employed in casual basis. The next important mode of employment is on the basis of annual contract. Nearly two-fifth of the total number

1. Economics of a multiple-purpose River Dam P. 51

of labourers is employed on annual terms. Such labourers are usually farm servants, though occasionally they work as domestic servants or in some other work assigned by the employer. Labourers engaged on weekly or monthly basis form a very small proportion, consisting of 6·82 per cent of the total labour force.

This general picture of the rural labour shows the uncertain terms of employment which adversely affect the socio-economic condition of the labourers.

In the existing agrarian pattern, the nature of agriculture and the unfavourably man-land ratio, there are uncertainty and inadequacy of employment. The extent of under-employment or disguised unemployment which is a usual feature, can be visualised from the number of days for which the labourers find employment either in farm or non-farm work.

The following sample figures shows the number of days during which a labourer is employed during the year.

	Number of labourers ..	184
	Number of man-days worked	37,261 (75·10 %)
Farm work	Number of days worked per labourer.	202·51
Non-Farm work	Number of man- days worked	12,357 (24·90 %)
	Number of days worked per labourer.	67·16
	Total number of days worked per labourer.	269 67
	Number of days unemployed	95·33

(*Source*—Economic Survey of Orissa, Vo.I.)

This is an indication of the extent of under employment that exists among the rural working population. This, of course, does not include the volume of unemployment because those who donot have any employment at all are not included in the table given above.

In considering the conditions of employment in rural areas, it is of interest to analyse the problem with reference to the places of work of the rural labour. The proportion of workers going outside the village, for purposes of employment would indicate the extent of

adjustment, that is taking place in the labour market. The following figures show the annual employment in days per worker according to the place of worker.

Farm work ..	Inside village	..	197·76
	Outside village	..	4·75
Non-farm work ..	Inside village	..	47·93
	Outside village	..	19·23

(*Source*——Economic Survey of Orissa, Vol. I)

The above data reveal that more than 91 per cent of the days worked are in the worker's own villages while only about 8 per cent of the days worked outside. It will be observed that so far as farm work is concerned 97·65 per cent of the days are worked in the village and thus movement for search of farm work outside is an exceedingly rare feature. The situation in respect of non-farm work is different in this respect. Nearly three-fourth of the total amount of work is non-farm employment is rendered outside the village. On the whole, the picture emerges from the table that mobility of labour is relatively small in the rural areas, Movements of workers to urvan centres and industrial regions in and outside the State is only peripheral.

It is a well known fact that agricultural labour constitutes the lowest income group in the community. It has been shown earlier that for considerable part of the year the rural labour does not find any employment. As such, the daily wage which he earns is not a proper indication of his total earning.

The wage rates per day varies less widely in this district. This is reflected in the fact that there is a greater correspondence here between total earnings and total days employed. Non-agricultural wage rates are bigher generally than agricultural wage rates.

132 Standard of living

Nethersole, writing in 1887, gave the following sketch of the material condition of the people. "Under normal conditions far more rice was produced than is required for the food of the population, and any one who chooses to work hard, has nither to had little difficulty in attaining himself and his family in relative comfort". Rice which is the staple food, was ordinarily very cheap, and a few days labour was sufficient to earn a stock of food for a much longer period". He was

of the opinion that probably more than half of the cultivators were more or less, in debt, but under mormal conditions there was no wide-spread poverty or distress of a chronic character. As regards the labouring classes the earnings of a farm servant was approximated at Rs. 63.75 per annum. As for the ordinary day-labourer it was stated that, he could earn by constant work Rs. 2·50, per mensem. This income was largely added to by his women folk, who besides being in constant demand at the seasons of transplanting, weeding, and harvesting were able to make good earnings, in the *Mahua* season. She also dried a stock of *mahua* flowers for household use. At other seasons, in years of good harvest, they had practically continuous work at rice-husking. The income of the ordinary labourers family, even at slack seasons, was not less than Rs. 3·50 which has sufficient for his food, clothing, and usual small comforts. But saving was not possible and in a year of crop failure the labouring class, supported for a few months by scanty harvest earnings and by the rice-husking of the women.

Dewar in his Settlement Report written in 1906 wrote with reference to the changes brought about by the opening of the railway and the in creased price of agricultural produce.

"The increased cost of food has enforced greater industry on the labourer and the poorer cultivator mand the opportunity of trade and profit has tempted the richer and more industrious to greater effort. The demand for land became keener and its cultivation closer and better. With this progress there came some gradual breaking up of the communal life, and a few cases an undesirable accumulation of land and of capital in the hands of money-lenders." But the main treand of the village life continued and even the money-lenders were still agriculturists. Dewar says, "The main result hitherto of the stirring up of individual competetion has been the establishment of a very large class of substantial cultivators, by habit thrifly and industrious, with adequate holdings, good stock and savings sufficient to allow of independent improvement and extension. The distinction between such men and the lower class of semi-aboriginals with debts and small holdings is much more clearly marked than formerly.

But there are now three distinct classes above the rank of labourer, and the upper class of the raiyats is not far below the landlords in property."

During this period the standard of comfort did not conspicuously alter. The food, furniture, and clothing of the average people were much the same as in 1888. There was no increase of out-lay on religious or domestic festivals. Dewar wrote, "The people themselves, when asked to point out their changes. have usually explaine that the old living has not changed, but is shared now by more families. Thus thouh all

still eat rice and vegetables only, more people now grow and eat fine rice. All still wear the old simple clothing, but more now wear bhulia cloths of fine quality. There are more tiled roofs and brick walls in the villages and bigger gardens, and more women are able to wear silver and gold ornaments. To this, I may add that the old comfortable standard has been extended over considerable tracts formerly held by aboriginals living poorly in leaf huts. and that hundreds of villages have substantially added to their health and comfort by building special drinking tanks".

Hamid writing in 1926 says, "The progress in the material condition of the people noticed by Mr. Dewar at last settlement has continued and increased in every direction". He noted that the agriculturist lived in better houses and wore finner cloth and more gold and silver than they did fifteen or twenty years back. He too, commented on the increased volume of trade and towns, for example, the Bargarh market from which it was estimated that 6,000 to 8,000 laden carts left every Friday after the weekly market. He was, however of the opinion that the general prosperity did not affect the labouring class and the small raiyats, in whose standard of comfort he noticed little difference. This was true of the landless labourer. But there can be little doubt that round Sambalpur and other centres where traders and contractors congregated, the labour too got better wages. The income of the ordinary labourer's family, even at slack seasons, probably approximates to Rs. 8 per month, which was sufficient for food and clothing but left no margin for saving. Even in the years 1920, 1921 and 1928 which were peak years for rice prices, there was no destitution amongst the labouring classes of the district.

It cannot be denied, particularly in regard to the year 1942, and the subsequent years that the consumer was hit hard. Rising prices resolutely tell upon the standard of living. Those of the low income group and particularly those with fixed salaries, suffered the most. Cost of both food and non-food articles had gone up to a level at which it became hard for a majority of people to make both ends meet. To meet the enhanced cost of living, dearness and other allowances were paid to the Government servants. But people receiving fixed salaries and the lower middle class, whose increased expenses, could not be adequately covered by the increase in their income suffer the serverest.

In recent years, the modern way of life is fast enveloping the villagers. The most important among these tendencies is the spreading of a sprit of individualism and the force of monetisation. Technological changes has ushered in an era of social revolution. By and large, the farmers are following a subsistence agriculture in the rural economy. But with planning the subsistence character of agriculture

is undergoing a change and more surpluses are being marketed, which is expected to bring about greater integration with the rest of the economy. Another trend in the same direction is a larger number of labourers and workers migrating from the rural areas to find employment in the towns. Thus ruralites are now being attracted to non-agricultural and non-rural occupations. The introduction of Community Development plans avoke an urge for improvement and progress among the masses.

The Gokhale Institute of Politics and Economics in the year 1954-55 conducted a sample survey into the economic condition of the Sambalpur town. According to this report, of the total population of the sample 35 per cent were earners. The ratio of earners to non-earners was 1:1·83. Female earners were 16·5 per cent, of the total earners. Of the total earners only 1·25 per cent were non-adults or juvenile earners. There were 5 male earners to every female earner. The ratio of earners to non-earners among females was 1:8.

The largest group of earners, that is, 28·6 per cent of the total earners, was in 'services'. In the category manufacturing 20·2 per cent and in trade and commerce 19·3 per cent of workers were working in the Sambalpur town. All these above three categories accounting for about two-thirds of the total earners. About 9 per cent were in agriculture, live-stock, etc. and four to five per cent, each in construction, sanitary services, and transport. Sambalpur town, judging from the occupational distribution of earners, was mainly an administrative centre and a minor trading and manufacturing centre.

For a general indication of the level of earnings the average earning can be taken as quite adequate and fairly representative. Examining the average earnings it has been recorded that the highest level was in distributive services, such as trade and commerce and the lowest in agriculture, live-stock, forestry, etc. The median earnings in transport, and storage and services were Rs. 673 and Rs. 693, respectively In construction, manufacturing, comprising mostly textiles and electricity, gas, water, etc., and services the average earning ranged between Rs. 407 and Rs. 491.

The ratio between the lowest and the highest median earnings was 1 : 2·3 that between agriculture, etc., and transport and services was around 1 : 1·7 between agriculture and the rest three around 1: 1·80. It is important to note that trade and commerce recorded the highest earnings of all, a fact which reflects upon the cost of distributive services.

Nearly seven to eight per cent of the total sample families were in the income ranges between Rs. 251 and Rs. 2,000 per year. A little more than 60 per cent of the families had incomes ranging from Rs. 501 to Rs. 2,000 per year. The average income was around Rs. 940 and the *per capita* income was Rs. 100.

So far as the Bargarh town is concerned 64 per cent of the total population were adult and 63 per cent of the total adults were earners. Of the adult males, 91 per cent were earners and 1·12 earners to every non-earners. Only 36 per cent of the adult females were earner and there were 3·2 non-earners to every earner. This is an interesting feature of the economy.

As the data reveal nearly 22 per cent were engaged in agriculture between 11 and 12 per cent in manufacturing, the most prominent among which was weaving and 4·5 per cent in transport, storage, and communication. One eight of the workers were engaged in trade, and commerce with a majority of them in retail trades. An equal percentage was also perceptible in the sphere of services, a considerable portion of which were in Government service.

As regards the earnings from the main occupations the median earnings from agriculture were Rs. 175. In manufacturing, the average earnings were around Rs. 266, significantly higher than in agriculture. In trade and commerce, and transport, storage, and communication the average earnings were Rs. 230 and Rs. 412, respectively. But the average income in the category of services recorded the highest earnings in all the industrial categories. The median income was Rs. 566.

The above deals with the earnings of earners from their main occupation, which does not include subsidiary occupations. However, the total average income (of both main and subsidiary occupations) during the fifties in Bargarh town was Rs. 425 and the *per capita* income was Rs. 329 per year.

133. Employment Exchange

The District Employment Exchange was started on 24th May 1951 with its headquarters at Sambalpur to meet the needs of the Hirakud Dam Project as well as to cope the man-power demand of various Government offices and industrial establishments. The employment situation of the district in general is gradually improving in comparison with the preceeding year. With the implementation of the Compulsory Notification of Vacancy Act, 1959, there has been good rise in the number of registrations and vacancies notified. Almost all th employers in public and private sector are notifying their vacancies to the Employment Exchange.

The scheme for the collection of Employment Market Information has been implemented in this Exchange since June, 1958.

The Vocational Guidance Unit was started functioning since 1st August 1961 with a Junior Employment Officer. He is advising the careerists regarding employment oppertunity to suit their educational qualification and selection of future study and training, etc.,

Two Employment Information and Assistance Bureaus have been opened at Jharsuguda, and Padampur with effect from 1st February 1961 and 15th January 1962, respectively.

The following table shows the number of registration, vacancies notified, placements and employers used the Exchange during the years 1956 to 1967:—

Year	Regi- stration	Vacan- cies notified	Place- ments	Number of emplo- yers utilised the Employ- ment Exchange
1	2	3	4	5
1956 ..	4,343	947	531	293
1957 ..	4,106	1,042	333	321
1958 ..	3,623	1,377	354	250
1959 ..	4.734	1,843	384	375
1960 ..	6,709	4,936	1,430	380
1961 ..	21,190	6,046	2,977	535
1962 ..	14,630	5,002	2,614	675
1963 ..	15,955	3,824	2,014	789
1964 ..	13,592	3,895	1,864	679
1965 ..	10,710	2,640	1,792	652
1966 ..	10,656	2,916	1,429	694
1967 ..	15,328	2,160	1,586	657

APPENDIX

Harvest price (per maund*)

Years		Rice	Wheat	Gram	Rape and mustard
		Rs. P.	Rs. P.	Rs. P.	Rs. P.
1940-41	..	3·60	4·57	4·31	5·57
1941-42	..	4·28	5·88	4·81	5·06
1942-43	..	6·25	11·75	10·44	9·00
1943-44	..	10·22	16·37	12·57	15·31
1944-45	..	10·22	14·06	14·52	15·31
1945-46	..	10·22	12·37	16·44	16·19
1946-47	..	8·88	12·31	17·[illegible]	21·44
1947-48	..	11·37	19·62	17·75	21·00
1948-49	..	15·00	20·00	19·25	30·00
1949-50	.	16·29	20·00	20·25	40·00
1954-55	..	13·50	20·00	13·00	18·00
1955-56	..	13·00	20·00	8·00	18·00
1957-58	..	16·92	17·23	17·28	.
1958-59	.	17·31	19·50	22·28	..
1959-60		15·49	16·13	23·58	31·10
1960-61	..	16·86	14·91	19·97	..
1961-62	..	19·25	20·00	27·50	40·00
1962-63	..	21·50	22·23	26·25	37·58
1963-64	..	26·71	20·75	30·36	32·87
1964-65	..	23·80	27·17	43·53	41·05
1965-66	.	22·67	30·78	45·90	..
1966-67	..	25·20	28·20	45·50	44·10
1967-68	..	25·20	28·00	45·00	43·80

*1 Maund=0·37 quintal

1 Maund=37·32 Kilograms

CHAPTER X

GENERAL ADMINISTRATION

134. District Administration

In conformity with the uniform pattern of district administration set up under the British rule in India, the Collector of Sambalpur who is also called the Deputy Commissioner * for the district is treated as the pivot of the set up with vast and varied powers. He is also designated as the District Magistrate and is thus the highest authority in the district for maintenance of law and order. Although the officials of other departments in the district are under the immediate charge of their respective Heads of Departments, the Collector exercises general supervision over them in regard to quantum and efficiency of their non-technical work. He can also call the assistance of any officer in the district. In case of difference of opinion between a district officer and the Collector in regard to non-technical matters connected with the execution of a work, the decision of the Collector prevails. Co-ordination of the activities of various departments by constant contacts with the officials concerned, control over local-self governing bodies, contact with the public in committees, execution of Government policies and miscellaneous functions such as rationing and food control and relief measures in times of emergencies like flood, epidemics, etc., are all included among the functions of the Collector.

As the Collector, he is the head of the land revenue administration at the district level. His major revenue duties include general supervision and control of land records and staff of the Revenue Department, supervision over the collection of revenue and hearing of appeals against the decision of his subordinate officers in matters connected with land revenue. In the administration of land revenue, he is assisted by a hierarchy of officials of both gazetted and non-gazetted status.

Prior to the 1st of May, 1961 the Collector was functioning as Magistrate for administration of criminal justice in accordance with the provisions of the Criminal Procedure Code. On 1st May 1961 Government separated the judiciary from the executive. As a result, the Collector and the Magistrates subordinate to him were deprived of their judicial functions. But the responsibility of main-

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*The Chief Revenue Officer of the district, who is called a Collector in other districts of Orissa is now called a Collector in Sambalpur, was previously called Deputy Commissioner, a designation taken from the Central Provinces Land Revenue Act (1885) which has been in force in Sambalpur district.

taining law and order still continues to rest with the Collector. The responsibility also calls for certain magisterial powers of an executive character.

In recent years planning and development activities have assumed increasing importance in the field of public administration. The Collector as the Chief District Officer is responsible for the implementation of various developmental plans at the district level. The major developmental activities comprise agriculture and animal husbandry, irrigation, reclamation, health and rural sanitation, education, social education, communication, rural arts and crafts, industries, tribal and rural welfare, and refugee rehabilitation Thus it may be seen that in the developmental field, the duties of the Collector are wide and he plays a vital and all-embracing role.

For the administration of developmental activities, the district is divided into Blocks and Panchayats and the developmental schemes are implemented through a set of officers called Block Development Officers, each of whom is in charge of a Block. The Block Development Officer is assisted by ministerial staff and various technical officers from different departments such as Agriculture, Animal Husbandry, Industry, Panchayat, Co-operation, and Community Development. The Grama Sevak is the lowest officer at the village level.

With the enforcement of the Orissa Zilla Parishad Act with effect from 26th January, 1961, the developmental administration of the district had been decentralised into three district tiers*, viz. the Zilla Parishad at the district level, the Panchayat Samiti at the Block level and the Grama Panchayat at the village level, with an elected body of members at each stage. But on 1st November, 1968 the Zilla Parishad was replaced by the District Advisory Council. Since 14th November, 1970 the District Advisory Council has been replaced by the District Development Advisory Board. This newly formed Board is constituted of both officials and non-official members.

With regard to superintendence and control of the administrative functions, the Collector is under the Revenue Divisional Commissioner, Northern Division, whose jurisdiction also extends over Sundargarh, Bolangir, Dhenkanal, and Keonjhar districts The office of the Revenue Divisional Commissioner is located at Sambalpur, the district headquarters. So far as administration of Tenancy Acts, Land Record and Surveys are concerned he is under the control of the Member, Board of Revenue. The powers of the Commissioner

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*See Chapter XIV for detailed discussion about the three-tier system

and the Member, Board of Revenue vis-a-vis the Collector have been defined in the Orissa Act XXIII of 1961 and the Act XLX of 1957 respectively.

With the growing complexity of administration and the growth of post-war development and reconstruction works, the post of two Additional District Magistrates have been created vesting in them the powers of a District Magistrate under the Code of Criminal Procedure. A rational distribution of work between the Collector and the Additional District Magistrates has relieved the former of several routine responsibilities thereby enabling him to devote whole-heartedly to the implementation of various development plans and programmes.

Besides, the Collector is assisted by 7 Deputy Collectors and 2 Sub-Deputy Collectors who constituted the sanctioned strength of Revenue Officers for the district headquarters. The district office of the Collector is divided into component sections like English office, Land records, Record room, Touzi, Nizarat, Revenue, Establishment, Land acquisition. Rent suit, Development, Tribal Welfare, and Mines sections, etc. Most of the sections of the district office are manned by Revenue Officers appointed by the Government who are to be in charge of particular sections subject to the over all control of the Collector. The Collector makes a rational distribution of work by allotting subjects to various sections in the collectorate The functions of these officers are to assist the Collector in taking decisions and in the efficient discharge of various administrative functions by effecting adequate check and scrutiny on papers and proposals sent to Government or received from subordinate officers.

The Collector is in charge of public relations and is assisted by a District Public Relations Officer appointed by the Government in Home (Public Relation) Department. Similarly in respect of supply of foodgrains and other essential commodities he is assisted by the Civil Supplies Officer who is an officer of the Supply Department. For Grama Panchayats, he is assisted by the District Grama Panchayat Officer, who belongs to the Orissa Administrative Service, but work under the Grama Panchayat Department on deputation. The District Welfare Officer, belonging to the Tribal & Rural Welfare Department helps the Collector in tribal welfare activities. One of the Additional District Magistrate is the *ex officio* District Registrar and is vested with necessary powers under the Registration Act. He is relieved of daily registration work by the District Sub-Registrar who remains in charge of this and other routine duties.

The District Treasury is managed by an officer belonging to the senior branch of Orissa Finance Service and is controlled by the Collector.

The above picture does not take into account administration of criminal justice in the district which has been separated from the executive since 1st May, 1961. The functions which are essentially judicial like the trial of criminal cases hitherto concentrated in the Collector-*cum*-District Magistrate and also in a number of Magistrates subordinate to and controlled by him have been transferred to a new set of officers called judicial magistrates under the control of the High Court.

An Officer of the rank of a District and Sessions Judge designated as Additional District Magistrate (Judicial) has been appointed by the High Court. According to the allocation of functions the Judicial Magistrates are subordinate to Subdivisional Magistrate and ultimately to the Judicial Additional District Magistrate while all executive magistrates are subordinate to the executive District Magistrate. The District Magistrate (Executive) and the Additional District Magistrate (Judicial) are independent of each other in their respective spheres of duties.

The Subdivisional Magistrate of the pre-separation period who used to combine both executive and judicial functions is now designated as the Subdivisional Officer and Magistrate, the first class with adequate powers over police for maintenance of law and order and for trying cases under preventive sections of the Code of Criminal Procedure.

135. Subdivisional Administration .

For the purposes of general administration, the district is divided into six subdivisions with headquarters at Sambalpur, Rairakhol, Bargarh, Deogarh, Kuchinda and Padampur.

Prior to 1905, Sambalpur and Bargarh subdivisions were a part of present Madhya Pradesh (then Central Provinces). In 1912, with the formation of the province of Bihar and Orissa, the two subdivisions were transferred to the new province. In the year 1948, the ex-State areas of Bamra and Rairakhol were added to the district and the subdivisions of Deogarh, Kuchinda, and Rairakhol have been created. From 1st July, 1969, a new subdivision named "Padampur" has been constituted comprising the areas of Bijepur, Gaisilat, Jagdalpur, Melchhamunda, Padampur, Paikmal' and Sohela police stations of old Bargarh subdivision.

SAMBALPUR SUBDIVISION

The sanctioned strength of revenue officers for this subdivision is one Deputy Collector who is the Subdivisional Officer and three Sub-Deputy Collectors. As a principal revenue officer of the subdivision, the Subdivisional Officer has to remain squarely in charge of revenue matters. Besides, he deals with revenue and criminal cases limited only to preventive sections of the Criminal Procedure Code, certificate cases, encroachment cases etc. One Sub-Deputy Collector is in charge of Nizarat. The other two work as Revenue Officer and Certificate Officer respectively. The entire subdivision has been covered by Community Development Blocks viz., Sambalpur I, II and III, Laikera I, II and III, Jharsuguda, Lakhanpur, and Rengali. There are two tahasils, namely, Sambalpur and Jharsuguda incharge of four Sub-Deputy Collectors, two of whom are designated as Tahasildar and the other two as Additional Tahasildar. The Tahasildar and Additional Tahasildar of Sambalpur are assisted by a Revenue Supervisor, 12 Revenue Inspectors, 17 Amins, 11 Muharrirs, 15 Khalasis and 4 process servers, and the Tahasildar and Additional Tahasildar of Jharsuguda by a Revenue Supervisor, 6 Revenue Inspectors, 2 Amins, 6 Revenue Muharrirs, 2 Chainmen and three Process Servers.

The Sub-Treasury at Jharsuguda is managed by an officer belonging to the junior branch of Orissa Finance Service.

RAIRAKHOL SUBDIVISION

The sanctioned strength of revenue officers for this subdivision is one Deputy Collector who is the Subdivisional Officer and two Sub-Deputy Collectors, as Revenue Officer and Tahasildar respectively. The Subdivisional Officer is in overall charge of the subdivision and looks to the general administration and revenue cases, certificate cases and encroachment cases etc. On the judicial side the Additional Munsif has been vested with powers of Subdivisional Magistrate.

The Tahasildar of Rairakhol is assisted by a Revenue Supervisor, 4 Revenue Inspectors, 2 Amins, 4 Muharrirs and 2 Chainmen in collection of Land Revenue arrears, cesses. Taccavi loans and in detection of encroachment cases.

The Sub-Treasury at Rairakhol is managed by one of the Revenue Officers posted at the subdivisional headquarters on the part-time basis.

BARGARH SUBDIVISION

One officer belonging to the Indian Administrative Service acts as the Subdivisional Officer and Sub-Collector for this subdivision. The Subdivisional Officer, besides his normal work also looks to the revenue cases, certificate cases and encroachment cases. There is one Deputy Collector functioning as Revenue Officer and a Sub-Deputy Collector as Nizarat Officer. Besides, there are two Sub-Deputy Collectors with their headquarters at Bargarh functioning as Tahasildar and Additional Tahasildar respectively. The Tahasildar and Additional Tahasildar of Bargarh are assisted by 2 Revenue Supervisors, 23 Revenue Inspectors each incharge of a Revenue Inspector circle, 37 Amins, 21 Revenue Muharrirs, 35 Khalasis, 12 Chainmen and 1 Process Server to collect land revenue arrears, cesses and Taccavi loans as well as to detect encroachment cases.

On the judicial side there is one Subdivisional Magistrate and one Magistrate vested with 1st class powers. The entire subdivision has been covered by six Blocks, viz., Bargarh, Bhatli, Bheden, Barpali, Attabira, and Ambabhona.

One of the Officers belonging to the Orissa Finance Service (Junior Branch) manages the Subdivisional Sub-Treasury.

DEOGARH SUBDIVISION

The sanctioned strength of revenue officers for this subdivision is one Deputy Collector and 2 Sub-Deputy Collectors. The Deputy Collector is functioning as Subdivisional Officer who is in overall charge of the subdivision. He looks to the general administration and deals with revenue cases, certificate cases and encroachment cases. One Sub-Deputy Collector who is stationary at the headquarters works as the Revenue Officer. The other Sub-Deputy Collector is functioning as the Tahasildar of Deogarh Tahasil. This Tahasildar is assisted by one Revenue Supervisor, 9 Revenue Inspectors, 2 Amins, 2 Chainmen and 8 Revenue Muharrirs in the revenue and miscellaneous works.

On the judicial side there is one Munsif working as Subdivisional Magistrate.

The entire subdivision has been covered by three Community Development Blocks, viz., Deogarh, Barkote and Naikul.

The Sub-Treasury at Deogarh is managed by one of the Revenue Officers of the subdivisional headquarters on the part-time basis. There is a currency chest for this Sub-Treasury.

KUCHINDA SUBDIVISION

The sanctioned strength of revenue officers for this subdivision is one Deputy Collector who is the Subdivisional Officer and 2 Sub-Deputy Collectors. The Subdivisional Officer is in overall charge

of the subdivision and looks to the general administration and tries revenue cases, certificate cases and encroachment cases. One Sub-Deputy Collector is functioning as Revenue Officer with headquarters at Kuchinda. Another Sub-Deputy Collector is functioning as Tahasildar, Kuchinda. As Tahasildar, he is assisted by a Revenue Supervisor, 9 Revenue Inspectors, 2 Amins, 8 Revenue Muharrirs and 2 Chainmen in the collection of land revenue arrears and cesses, Taccavi loans and in detection of encroachment cases. They also make revenue and miscellaneous enquiries.

The subdivision has been covered by three Blocks, viz., Kuchinda, Jamankira and Gobindpur. On the judicial side there is one Subdivisional Magistrate.

The Sub-Treasury at Kuchinda is managed by an officer of Orissa Finance Service (Junior Branch).

PADAMPUR SUBDIVISION

The sanctioned strength of evenue officers for this subdivision is two Deputy Collectors of whom one is the Subdivisional Officer and three Sub-Deputy Collectors. The Subdivisional Officer is in the overall charge of the subdivision and looks to the general administration and revenue cases, certificate cases and encroachment cases, etc. The other Deputy Collector works as the Revenue Officer. One of the Sub-Deputy Collectors works as the Nizarat Officer and the other two function as Tahasildar and Additional Tahasildar respectively. The non-gazetted staff of this tahasil include 2 Revenue Supervisors, 14 Revenue Inspectors, 2 Amins, 13 Revenue Muharrirs and 2 Chainmen. The subdivision has been divided into six Blocks, viz., Bijepur, Sohela, Gaisilat, Padampur, Paikmal I and Paikmal II.

On the judicial side the Additional Munsif, Padampur has been vested with powers of Magistrate (Judicial) 1st class. One of the Revenue Officers of the subdivisional headquarters in addition to his own revenue duties manages the subdivisional Sub-Treasury.

136. Other District Offices

There are a number of officers functioning in Sambalpur at the district level. They are under the administrative control of their respective Heads of Departments at the State Level. Their functions have been dealt with in other chapters. The chief officers functioning at the district level are as follows :—

1. Commercial Tax Officer
2. District Agricultural Officer
3. District Health Officer
4. District Industries Officer

5. Executive Engineer (Public Health Department)

6. Executive Engineer (Rural Engineering Organisation)

7. Executive Engineer (Roads and Buildings)

8. District Labour Officer

9. District Mining Officer

10. Superintendent of Police

11. Civil Surgeon

12. Assistant Registrar of Co-operative Societies

13. Employment Exchange

14. Superintendent of Excise

Regional and Zonal Officers at Sambalpur

1. Assistant Commissioner of Commercial Taxes

2. Assistant Director of Gram Panchayat

3. Assistant Director of Fisheries

4. Assistant Labour Commissioner

5. Conservator of Forests

6. Deputy Registrar of Co-operative Societies

7. Deputy Director, Agriculture

8. Deputy Director, Animal Husbandry

9. Divisional Forest Officer

10. Joint Director, Animal Husbandry and Veterinary Services

11. Deputy Inspector-General (Police)

12. Chief Engineer, Hirakud Dam Project

Central Government Offices

1. Office of the All India Radio
2. Office of the Central Excise
3. Office of the Central Wheat Sales Depot
4. Divisional Engineer, Telegraphs
5. Superintendent of Post Offices
6. Office of the District Engineer, Construction, South-Eastern Railway.

CHAPTER XI

REVENUE ADMINISTRATION

137. Historical Background

The history of land revenue administration of the district of Sambalpur as it exists today can be hardly dealt in isolation of the numerous territorial and administrative changes that it had undergone during the last one and half centuries. Sambalpur was under the occupation of the rulers of the Chauhan dynasty founded by Raja Balaram Deo as early as 1485 till the death of Raja Narayan Singh in 1849 when it escheated to the British Government in the absence of a direct heir in the ruling family. It continued to be administered as a part of Chota Nagpur (then a part South-West Frontier) till 1860 when it was transferred to the Orissa Division of Bengal. It, however, remained as a part of Bengal for a couple of years and in 1862 it was tagged to the Central Provinces. But hardly before half a century had passed, it was retransferred in 1905 to the Orissa Division of the then Bengal Presidency. In 1912 when the Province of Bihar and Orissa was constituted, Sambalpur formed a part this new province and continued as such till 1936 when Orissa was created a separate province. The district of Sambalpur witnessed territorial enlargement by the addition of Mahadeopali police station (now forming a part of the Sambalpur subdivision) and the Khariar Zamindari (now the Nawapara subdivision of Kalahandi district) which were transferred to Orissa from the Central Provinces and Berar on the first day of April, 1936. After Indepeudence, two princely States, namely, Bamra and Rairakhol merged with Orissa in 1948 and formed subdivisions of the district on 1st January 1948 and 26th October 1949 respectively, But the merger of these two feudatory States was accompained by the transfer of Nawapara subdivision to the new district of Kalahandi and the submersion of the entire Mahadeopali police-station in water after the construction of the Hirakud reservoir. The ex-princely State of Bamra had two subdivisions, namely, Kuchinda and Deogarh which have been maintained. In these two subdivisions, the tenancy and revenue laws were codified in the "Bamra Revenue Rules" which are in force since the 1st December, 1929 after completion of the settlement operations in 1928-29 Rairakhol has been made a subdivision of the district. Thus the present district of Sambalpur consists of six subdivisions, namely Sambalpur, Bargarh, Deogarh, Kuchinda, Padampur, and Rairakhol.

138. The Land Revenue System

This chequered history of the land had an unmistakable impact on its revenue administration. During the early days immediately after the territory was transferred to the Orissa Division of Bengal in 1860 the

Bengal Rent Act of 1859 was made applicable in the district. This Act granted occupancy rights to Raiyats of a certain status and imposed limitation on the enhancement of their rent. But the provisions of this enactment were subsequently found to be unsuitable to the conditions prevailing in the Sambalpur district. Hence since Sambalpur came under the administrative jurisdiction of the Central Provinces, the successive land revenue and tenancy laws of the Central Provinces enacted subsequent to 1862, i. e., the year of its transfer to the Central Provinces, have been governing the substantive and procedural law relating to land and land revenue in the district. The Central Provinces Land Revenue Act of 1881 and the Central Provinces Tenancy Act of 1898 although subsequently repealed in Central Provinces, are in force in areas of the old district of Sambalpur whereas areas newly transferred from the Central Provinces in 1936 are governed by the Central Provinces Land Revenue Act of 1917 and the Central Provinces Tenancy Act of 1920 which have repealed the old enactments.

For the purpose of land revenue administration the district of Sambalpur can be conveniently divided into two tracts, namely, the Khalsa and the Zamindaris. The term Khalsa is used to indicate land held directly from Government. It includes, lands not belonging to Zamindari as well as lands not forming a part of Government reserved forest. The area of the *Khalsa* in the district is 1,657 square miles consisting of 119 *Malguzari*, 870 *Gountia* and 16 *Rayatwari* villages. The biggest village of the district is Tamperkela with an area of 7,168·58 acres and the smallest is Purichampa having an area of 4·85 acres only ; and both the villages are situated in the Sambalpur Subdivision. From the earliest Government records and the Settlement Reports it is found that besides Zamindars, there were 5 classes of proprietors in the *Khalsa* area as given below with varying degrees of proprietary interest.

139. The Khalsa

(i) The Gountias

The *Gountias* were the most predominant and a peculiar class of proprietors. They were the village head-men in the *Khalsa* area. The *Gountias* were responsible for the payment of a lump-sum assessment on the village for a period of years according to a lease which was periodically revised and renewed. When the district came under the British administration, a number of short-term settlements were made. Soon after the transfer of the district to the Central Provinces. a proclamation was issued in 1862 notifying that proprietary rights would be conferred on all *Gountias* who on enquiry might be found entitled to it and that all *Gountias* on whom such proprietary rights might be conferred would be owners of their villages and would have a heritable and transferable right in them. But subsequently the policy was changed and by the time the first regular settlement was undertaken, it was decided not to

give full proprietary rights to the *Gountias* but make them proprietors only in respect of their *Bhogra* or home-farm land. Since then, the rights habitually exercised by *Gountias* and sanctioned by the ordinary practice of Civil Court were as follows :—

(*i*) Proprietorship over and free right of alienation of home-farm

(*ii*) Right of management (including collection of rent and payment of Government revenue) over the whole village and undisturbed possession of it so long as the Government revenue was fully and promptly paid; and

(*iii*) Right of alienation of the whole village or of a share in it if accompained by a transfer of the home-farm land.

The amount of assessment was recovered from the village cultivators and the remuneration of the *Gountia* consisted in undisturbed enjoyment of home-farm, i. e., *Bhogra* lands free of revenue (or cash in lieu thereof) equivalent to only 25 per cent of the rents paid by raiyats. Thus when the rental value of the home-farm or *Bhogra* land exceeded this limit of concession, the *Gountias* had to pay *Zapti* or excess valuation and when, on the other hand, the same was less than 25 per cent of the *raiyati* rental of the village, he received *Puraskar* or cash drawn back from the Government. The head-men were occasionally ejected for default in the payment of revenue ; and the grant of new lease was often made an opportunity for imposing fee (*Nazarana*) which the *Gountia* paid in a great part from his own profits and did not recover the same from the cultivators. The defaulting *Gountia* did hardly hesitate to pay the *Nazarana*, however, exorbitant, because the *Gountiai* was not only a source of income but it also meant a great social prestige which he could never afford to lose. The cultivators, however, were ejected for default in the payment of revenue although they rendered a variety of services to the *Gountia* commonly known as *Bethi Begari.*

(ii) The Malguzars

The *Malguzars* were full proprietors in villages held by them. They were like ordinary proprietors of Bengal holding lands on temporary settlement. A large number of *Malguzari* villages were, however, revenue-free. Tracing the history of this tenure, L. S. S. O' Malley has observed, "The Malguzars of Sambalpur consist of certain estate-holders who, for services rendered to the native rulers or to the British Government, held their estates revenue-free, or paid only nominal quit-rents". Though the legal status of the *Gountia* in the *Khalsa* area was entirely different from that of a *Malguzar*, the practical differences were not very great. In some ways the *Malguzar* was in a more advantageous position than the *Gountia*. The former as proprietor of his waste land might sell timber growing on it but a *Gountia* could not do so because he was

only a trustee on behalf of the Government responsible to ensure that the village forests were used for community needs. The assessment paid by a *Gountia* was also higher than that of a Malguzar. The *Malguzar* had to pay from 45 to 60 per cent of the total valuation of his village whereas the *Gountia* received in revenue-free home-farm land or in cash only 25 per cent of the rent paid by the *raiyats* In villages held by *Gountias* under them they had, so long as the *Gountia* rights intervened, only a latent proprietary interest and it was decided by an order passed in 1904 that the *Gountia* should pay the usual cesses on their home-farm valuations and that the Malguzars should make up the difference between this and the Government demand out of their own pockets.

Just as there were in proprietary villages superior and inferior proprietors, so also there were superior and inferior *Gountias* in *Khalsa Gountia* villages, the latter being commonly known as *Sikmi Gountias* The rights of the *Sikmi Gountias* were exactly the same as those of ordinary *Gountias*, except that they paid their village assessment to the superior *Gountia* instead of to the Government and that in addition to Government demand the *Sikmi Gountia* had also to pay the *Gountia* a *Malikana*, that is, a sum representing a share in the cultivating profits of the home-farm lands. In a large number of *Khalsa* villages dual rights of gountiaship were exercised, and in all cases it was the inferior or *Sikmi Gountia* who functioned as the real village manager and discharged the primary responsibilities of rent collection. Yet the superior *Gountia* was legally accountable to the Government for prompt and timely payment of assessment in full. The position of the *Sikmi Gountia* in *Malguzari* villages was the same as that of *Gountia* in *Khalsa* village. In the former case the *Malguzar* represented the position of the Government. Out of 119 *Malguzari* villages in the district of Sambalpur, 38 were held by *Sikmi Gountias*.

(iii) Bhogra Bhogis

The tenure called *Bhogra-Bhogi* referred to proprietary rights exercised in small parcels of land and not in entire villages. It has been pointed out earlier that *Malguzars* were proprietors of whole villages and for all practical purposes *Gountias* were also proprietors of whole villages. The history of the *Bhogra-Bhogi* tenure is that at the private partition of a *Khalsa* village among various branches of a *gountia* family, the senior members divided among themselves the principal part of the home-farm land and took over the entire management of the village. The junior members of the family, however, did not desire to take the trouble of managing the village. They were satisfied with plots of home-farm land which fell to their share and relinquished all claim over village management. On the other hand, the senior co-shares retaining right over the village management relinquished all the rights to interfere in the

disposal of the *Bhogra-Bhogi* lands. The *Bhogra-Bhogis*, therefore, exercised unimpeded right of enjoyment of the parcels of land allotted to them and the transfer of such plots was freely and frequently resorted to. The *Bhogra-Bhogis* did not pay anything towards the village assessment except a share of the *Zapti* or excess assessment on the home-farm land where the rental value of such lands was more than 25 per cent of the *raiyati* rental of the village.

(iv) Malik makbuza

Malik Makbuza is only a name given to *Bhogra-Bhogi* lands held by *Malguzars*. *Malik Makbuzas* belonged to *Malguzari* villages and had the same history and incidences as the *Bhogra-Bhogi* tenure in a *Khalsa Gountiai* village. There were very few *Malik Makbuza* plots in the district though the number of *Bhogra-Bhogi* plots was many. Mr. F. C. King in the District Gazetteer of Sambalpur (1932) referred to the existence of only thirteen *Malik Makbuza* tenancies in the district.

(v) Brahmottar

Brahmottar lands consisted of plots granted in perpetuity to Brahmins and others. The tenure was a proprietary one and the holders were entitled, on the resumption of the revenue, to have a proprietary sub-settlement made with them. These lands cannot be treated as *Malik Makbuzas* or *Bhogra-Bhogis* because every tenant holding from them became by the payment of rents occupancy tenant whereas the proprietors of the *Bhogra-Bhogi* or *Malik Makbuza* plots could sub-let without creating occupancy rights. The person holding *Brahmottar* had no privilege of village home-farm. The *Brahmottar* lands which consisted of small plots granted in perpetuity to Brahmins were too many in the district. This tenure was created in recognition of the services rendered by the Brahmins for religious duties performed by them or for the spiritual up-lift of the ruler or the society in general.

140. The Zamindaris

The *Zamindaris* were tracts held by proprietors having feudal status entirely different from that of *Zamindars* in the rest of the Central Provinces. There were 16 *Zamindaris* in the district extending over an area of 1,791 square miles. The *Zamindari* of Borasambar was the largest having a total area of 841 square miles whereas Pat-kulanda was the smallest with an area of only 6 square miles. According to the latest settlement (1926) by Khan Bahadur Mohammed Hamid the total number of Zamindari villages in the Sambalpur and Bargarh (including Padampur) Subdivisions was 1,042. The revenue history of the *zamindaris* goes back to ancient times when the *Gonds* and *Binjhals* were the ruling chiefs of Sambalpur. But whatever their origin may have been, it appears

that before the district came under direct British administration, while it was under the rule of the Rajas of Sambalpur, the *Zamindaris* were service tenures held on payment of a small tribute called *Takoli* subject to the condition that the proprietors were bound to render military service when required. When the district escheated to the British, these *Zamindars* who held in perpetuity continued in the enjoyment of their tenures on payment of their existing *takoli* and were directed to perform police duties instead of rendering military service. During the rebellion of Surendra Sai from 1857 to 1862 nine of the 16 *zamindars*, namely, Kolabira, Kudabaga, Ghens, Paharsirgira, Patkulanda, Rampur, Bheran, Kharsal and Mandomahal were confiscated in consequence of their proprietors having joined in the revolt ; but later on, they were restored to their respective proprietors on the eve of proclamation of amnesty in 1859.

When the settlement of 1876 was undertaken it was decided that the circumstances of each estate should be considered separately and the assessment of each fixed with regard to its previous history and the then existing conditions. A summary enquiry was accordingly made into the circumstances of each *Zamindari*, and its payments to Government were revised and readjusted. But at the time no *Sanads* were given, because it was contended by the Chief Commissioner that it was desirable to make detailed enquiries into subordinate rights existing in these estates and in the absence of such enquiries it was not possible to define the relation of the *Zamindars* with their *Gountias* and *Raiyats*. At the settlement of 1885-89 the assessment was based on existing assets, and the *Zamindars* were at full liberty to extract what they could in the way of rent enhancement from their tenants till the subsequent settlement, by which time it was expected that the resurvey in progress would be completed. It was also held that no *Sanad* should be given, but that a *Wazib-ul-urz* or village administration paper would be framed in two parts, the first defining the *zamindars*' rights and liabilities as against Government, and the second the relations between himself and his tenants.

It has been stated earlier that the *Zamindar* in Sambalpur was an ordinary proprietor who paid, instead of a *Kamil jama* of full assessment, a feudal *takoli* or tribute which was invariably much less than a full proprietary assessment. But in the past these payments by the Zamindars increased gradually owing to the resumption by Government of the semi-independent powers formerly exercised by the *Zamindars*. When the district escheated to the British, the *Zamindars* were responsible for the police administration in their estates, and in the settlement of 1876 the police powers were nominally left to them, their *takolis* being fixed at an exceptionally low rate, in consideration of services rendered. Their services, however, had become more and more nominal from

year to year, especially in the smaller estates which were surrounded by *Khalsa* villages; and it was felt to be an anomaly that they should be isolated from the normal police arrangements of the district. Accordingly in 1888, the Government availing itself of the opportunity afforded by the revision of settlement, resumed the police administration in 12 of the smaller estates, namely, Ghens, Bheran, Kharsal, Paharsirgira, Patkulanda, Mandomahal, Rajpur, Loisingh, Laira, Machida, Kudabaga and Rampur. The increased expenditure entailed by the employment of district police was at the same time recouped by a rateable increase in the *Zamindar's takoli.* Four of the larger and more important estates viz., Borasambar, Barpali, Bijepur and Kolabira were excluded from this withdrawal of police administration mainly because of their remoteness and of the difficulty and cost of extending the ordinary police system to them. In 1890, however, the ordinary police jurisdiction was extended to Borasambar, then under the management of the Court of Wards, the cost being added to the land revenue *takoli,* and it was in 1892 that the same measure was carried out in the case of the remaining *Zamindars* Excise income was still enjoyed by the zamindar of Borasambar estate but this arrangement having been ruled by the Government of India to be in conflict with the general law, steps were taken to resume the Excise administration on the basis of an equitable compensation. Till the general abolition of intermediary rights in pursuance of the Orissa Estates Abolition Act of 1951, the *zamindars* were allowed to retain the management of forests and fisheries in their estates. Regarding *Takoli,* R. K. Ramadhyani, I. C. S., observed that in Sambalpur the zamindars generally make payment called *takoli* to the State (Government) and usually this is a nominal sum fixed at the time the grant was made and bears no relation to the income of the *Zamindari.* In some cases where the *Zamindars* have a right to revenue other than land revenue, it is calculated as a proportion of the total income of the *zamindari* and in others it is a certain percentage of the total land revenue. The Government of India, however, in 1897 declared on reference regarding the Chindwara *Jagirs* that it should be made clear "that the present nominal assessments have no permanency attached to them and that Government would eventually demand a substantial share of the assets". Acting on this policy which was given due recognition in subsequent settlements, the Government fixed the *takoli* at 40 per cent of the *Kamil Jama* in the case of the four zamindaris of Borasambar, Barpali, Bijepur and Rajpur and at 50 per cent in the case of all the other *zamindaris. The Kamil jama,* it may be reiterated, is the full assessment which the *zamindari* would pay if he had not a semi-feudal status. The full assessment used to be ascertained by taking 60 per cent of his total assets as calculated by adding up the rents or rental valuation of all cultivated lands (including *sir* and service land) and the *zamindar's siwai* income i. e., his income from forest, fisheries, ferries, cattle pounds, grazing dues and the like.

The *Zamindar* of Sambalpur occupied a position which was mid-way between the chief of a Feudatory State who paid tribute to the British Government, and the ordinary proprietor of *Khalsa* village, who used to pay a portion of his assets as land revenue. The tenure of the *Zamindar* was not laid down in any Act, but it was expressed as pointed out earlier in the *wazib-ul-urz* or village administration record, accepted by him on each Settlement. Whenever the terms and conditions embodied in the *Wazib-ul-urz* appeared to be doubtful or vague, definite orders of the Government used to be issued amplifying a dubious point or interpreting apparently confusing provisions. Briefly, the legal status of the Zamindar was that they were proprietors of the estates which were impartible and non-transferable except to heirs, who too had to be approved by the Government. Each estate was held by the *Zamindar* only on specified terms, and he could be theoretically dispossessed in case of continued gross mismanagement of the estate or wilful violation of the terms embodied in *Wazib-ul-urz*. The rights and privileges of the *Zamindars* were personal and a condition was imposed in the *Wazib-ul-urz* that should at any time the estate be transferred otherwise than in accordance with the procedure mentioned in the *Wazib-ul-urz*, the Government would be at liberty to impose full land revenue and forest assessment and to resume all special Zamindari privileges. These *Zamindaris* were, therefore, comparable to permanently settled estates of Bengal with certain restrictions. Here it may be recalled that no permanent dispossession of *Zamindari* did actually occur in Sambalpur, even after many of them rose in revolt against the British Government in 1857. On the other hand, the right of the Government to determine succession was rigidly enforced, and the impartibility of the estate had been insisted upon. No person other than the *zamindar* had been recognized as proprietor of land within a *zamindari* or had successfully contested his claim to proprietorship. The one exception to this rule was that of the *Sub-Zamindar* of Garh Loisingh, locally known as the *Zamindar* of Jujomura. In this case a younger branch of the *Zamindar*'s family established itself separately by clearing land and settling villagers in the Loisingh hills, and was recognised at the settlement of 1885—89 as having sub-proprietary rights

(i) The Maufidars

In the *Zamindaris* many villages were held free of rent by persons who were either relations of the *Zamindar* or his former servants. They were commonly known as *Maufidars*. The *Maufi* was against the Zamindar and not against the Government. Therefore the *Maufidars* used to pay proportionate share of land revenue payable by the Zamindar to Government. This was, however, an amicable arrangement which had no official recognition. *Maufidars* agitated to have absolute right in the villages held by them. But as they were creations of the *zamindar*

their true status was something intermediate between the tenant and the *Zamindar*. The only peculiar feature in the incidences of the *Maufidars'* right was that they held their villages rent-free.

(*ii*) The Thekadars

The most important feature in the *Zamindari* was the intermediate status of *Thekadars*. The *Thekadar* had the right to collect rent from the tenants of village, manage the village and enjoy the *Sir* (home farm) land of the village. His liability was to pay the *Thekajama* (which was equal to the entire assessment of the village) to the *Zamindar* in time. There were two kinds of *Thekadars*, namely ordinary *Thekadars*, and protected *Thekadars*. Though the *Thekadar* was liable to pay the total rent he was entitled to collect from the village, he made large profits from the *Sir* lands. As a matter of fact, the *Sir* lands were the most valuable lands in the village. It was, therefore, a recognised custom in the *Zamindaris* that on each renewal of *Theka* lease, the *Thekadar* was called upon to pay a considerable sum of *Nazarana*, the amount of which generally varied according to the value of the *Sir* land. This system led to much abuse and some of the *Zamindars* enhanced the *Nazarana* very excessively which resulted in many aboriginal *Thekadars* being ousted freely in favour of rich Hindu bidders. In 1888, legislative action was, therefore, taken to protect the *Thekadars* and protection was granted to all who could prove long possession and fair improvement of the village to their credit. The tenure of a protected *Thekadar* was made heritable but not transferable. Such *Thekadars* were not liable to ejectment for mere non-payment of *Thekajama*. Though the provision made in Central Provinces Land Revenue Act of 1881 dealt with protection of Thekadars in a summary manner and left scope for considerable dispute between the *Thekadars* and the *Zamindar*, yet the system worked more or less satisfactorily.

The tenure of protected *Thekadars* was impartible. It used to devolve only on one member of the *Thekadar's* family. In practice, however, the home-farm land used to be divided among all members of the *Thekadar's* family. These *Thekadars* were liable to pay the assessment in respect of *Sir* lands in their possession. Usually disputes arose over the apportionment of assessment and the *Thekadars* as well as share holders used to apply to the Deputy Commissioner for an order of apportionment, but such applications were invariably rejected on the ground that there was no provision for such apportionment in the Central Provinces Land Revenue Act of 1881. This created a very difficult situation and resulted in frequent quarrels among the *Thekadars* and the share holders and ultimately led to situations similar to those obtaining in the *Gounti* Villages. As a result of these frictions, it was the tenant who had to suffer ultimately and there was no end of incessant litigations and consequent mismanagement of the village and its lands.

141. Tenancy Rights

The Central Provinces Tenancy Act of 1898 defines that with the exception of tenants in possession of service holdings as well as such servants of *Zamindars* who held land in return for a variety of service, all tenants who were not sub-tenants had right of occupancy in their holdings. The occupaney right of tenants was also recognised under section 44 of the C. P. Tenancy Act for every tenant who on the first day of 1884 held land continuously for twelve years. The Tenancy Act envisaged two types of occupancy tenants, namely, absolute occupancy tenants and ordinary occupancy tenants besides village service tenants, ordinary tenants and sub-tenants. In Sambalpur, however, there was only one class of occupancy tenants who were called ordinary occupancy tenants. The occupancy right was heritable and descended to heirs like any other property subject to the statutory restriction against transfer, so long as the rent was paid and the land was not diverted to non-agricultural purposes. Till recently occupancy right was transferable only under the following two circumstances, namely :—

(*i*) a tenant might sub-let his land for a period not exceeding one year ; and

(*ii*) he might transfer his right of occupancy to any person who, if he survives the original tenant, should inherit the right of occupancy or to any person in favour of whom as a co-sharer the right of occupancy ordinarily arose or who had become by succession a co-sharer therein.

Any contravention of the above provision was not void but voidable at the instance of any such person as would be entitled to inherit his right in the holding in the event of his death without nearer heirs or of the landlord from whom the tenant held the land on application to revenue officer made within two years from the date on which in pursuance of the transfer the tenant parted with the possession of land. In spite of these restrictions which *prima facie* appear very rigid, transfers used to be freely made by indirect method of surrender to the landlord that is *Gountia*, *Thekadar*, *Malguzar* or the *Zamindar* in villages where there were no *Thekadar* and resettlement by him with the transferee. Obviously this method directly benefited the landlord at the cost of the tenant. The landlord used to charge about 25 per cent or some times more of the consideration money as premium for becoming a party to the questionable process of getting the transfer effective. Mr. Dewar who was the Settlement Officer at Sambalpur in 1904—1908 had sufficient knowledge of this undesirable practice inherent in the provisions of the law regarding restriction on transfer of occupancy rights which was the only marketable property of an agriculturist and opined that if the intention was to prevent the lands being

coucentrated in the hands of many landlords, exploitors and speculators then "this danger did not threaten Sambalpur and the Act has been inoperative to prevent the passing of land from the poor men into the hands of richer and more industrious agriculturist". Khan Bahadur Mohammed Hamid, the Settlement Officer of Sambalpur during the years 1925--1928, also made a similar observation. He remarked that the only person who was benefited by this provision of law was the landlord who generally managed to secure a heavy premium ranging about 25 per cent of the consideration money on every transfer made by the tenant. This was the greatest complaint by the tenants of Sambalpur.

Really the provisions of the law which were intended to benefit the tiller of the soil has the only effect of benefiting the landlords at the cost of the tillers. The framers of the Act, perhaps foresaw this type of misuse of this statutory provision resulting in gross abuses of the landlords' authority to their own benefit and, therefore, provided that surrenders of the lands could be contested by only near relatives of the surrendering tenants. But this provision was more or less inoperative because landlords used to take part in all these transactions and it was not generally possible for a poor tenant to go against the landlord.

About 25 per cent of the tenants of the district were occupancy tenants who were thus put to immense difficulty that was inherent in the statutory restrictions regarding the transfer of their property. This is the reason why in this district, where there was lot of scope for extension of agriculture and where the standard of cultivation was generally high, the tenant did not feel encouraged to invest all he could in the extension of cultivation. In consideration of these obvious short-comings, the State Government had to enact an amendment in the year 1953 to the C. P. Tenancy Act of 1898 in pursuance of which the occupancy tenants got a free right to transfer their lands.

An occupancy tenant could be ejected from his holding for non-payment of rent. This was too severe a provision which very much reduced the security of the tenure. The tenants in the district of Sambalpur used to maintain rent receipt books in the prescribed form in two parts of which the first part showed particulars of demand and the second part particulars of collection. Entries in these books used to be made by the Circle *Patwari*, a hereditary Government servant responsible for collecting revenue; and the revenue officers were required to inspect the book maintained by each tenant during their general inspection of the village. This system helped the tenants to some extent in keeping documentary evidence against any false allegation that rent had not been paid by them. According to the provisions of the settlement *Wazib-ul-urz* each cultivator was entitled to house site free of rent

and when he abondoned the holding, he lost his right over the site in the village. He was, of course, entitled to dispose of any structure which he might have erected on the site provided that he did so within one month of the site being allotted to another person by the *Lambardar* and the village *Panches*. The rights of non-agriculturists to house sites occupied by them were regulated by agreement with the *Lambardar* and the village *Panches*. This was another unsatisfactory provision of law which reduced the value of house sites and exposed the tenant to the whims and caprices of the landlord. Similarly the tenant's right over the trees was not clearly defined. The settlement *Wazib-ul-urz* mentioned that an occupancy tenant had the right to enjoy fruits and timber of trees whether planted by him or self-grown in his land-holding. Another provision in the *Wazib-ul-urz* entitled the tenant to plant trees on another man's land and to claim fruits and timber thereof. It was really very difficult to comprehend the wisdom behind this provision which ultimately resulted in a number of civil and criminal litigations.

As regards the village servants, it has been aptly remarked by Khan Bahadur Mohammed Hamid in his Settlement Report that "they are merely village service holders and it is dignifying their position unduly to qualify them as village service tenants". They enjoy land in lieu of rendering service to the community. It naturally follows, therefore that if for any reason a person ceases to render service, he loses the land. There are the following classes of village service tenants in the district namely :

1. Jhankar (A Priest-*cum*-watchman)
2. Ganda (Watchman)
3. Nariha (Water carrier)
4. Negi (Clerk)
5. Kumbhar (Potter)
6. Lohar (Smith)
7. Bhandari (Barber)
8. Dhoba (Washer-man)

The Jhankars do not belong to any particular caste. They worship village deity generally known *as Samalai*. Besides, they also worship deities called *Mauli*, *Granapati* and *Budima*. Most of the service holdings, however, were in the possession of village watchmen, namely, the Jhankar and Ganda who used to hold land on a concessional term. The land held by them was exempted by the Government from assessment up to the maximum valuation of 1/8th of the *raiyati* rental paid by the village. There are now very few *Negi* holdings. But other village servants mentioned above are found in most of the larger and older villages. The areas held by them, of course,

are very small and are free from assessment during the term of settlement. The village service tenants, namely, *Jhankar* or *Ganda* (*Chaukidar*) were appointed, controlled and dismissed by the Deputy Commissioner under the provisions of C. P. Land Revenue Act of 1881. Such service tenants were also entitled to receive grains from the *raiyats* as per the stipulation in the record of rights. The *Chaukidars* were further entitled to get the hide and horns of the dead animals, if owners did not have any claim or objection. Even there were instances of *Chaukidar* receiving cash remuneration from the *Gountias* or *Malguzars*.

The tenants of *Bhogra* and *Sir* lands come under the definition of ordinary tenants as given in the Tenancy Act of 1898. The sub-tenant of *Bhogra* land have now secured what is practically an occupancy right by agreement with *Gountias*. A tenant who was not an occupancy tenant and who held land from another tenant was recognised as a sub-tenant who had no right of occupancy in his holdings.

142. Survey and Assessment

(*i*) Survey

The importance of Revenue Administration was recognised as early as in 1772 when Warren Hastings established the system of an elaborate district administration to be manned by the Company's Civil Servants. Land Revenue was then regarded as the most important source of income for the State, because in those days trade and commerce did not make much head-way. Since India is an agricultural country, most people depend upon land for their livelihood and as such there is a close affinity between the land and the people. Even today in spite of industrial development and various measures of taxation, land revenue has hitherto held the pride of place since early British period. Whatever land revenue is regarded whether as a tax upon agricultural income or as a mere charge for the privilege of cultivation under the protection and facilities afforded by the State, it has broadly come to mean an acreage rate. Under any progressive system of revenue administration, land revenue is supposed to bear definite relation with the productive capacity or income from land. As land revenue is an acreage rate, its proper assessment is dependent on accurate measurement or survey of the surface of the land so as to give actual area under cultivation or in possession of individual tenants. Survey is also necessary for the determination of the areas of land likely to be cultivated in future as well as for the determination of areas which may not be cultivated but are reserved for other purposes. This fact has always been recognised, though of course, with varying emphasis from time to time depending on the pattern of prevailing land revenue administration.

Just as the pattern of land revenue administration is not the same throughout the State because different parts originally formed parts of different administrative units, so also the matter relating to survey,

settlement and land records are not uniform throughout the State for the same reason. Sambalpur which was a district of Central Provinces up to 1905 was cadastrally surveyed and settled between the years 1904—1908. After the death of Raja Narayan Singh in 1849 when the tract escheated to the British Government, a hasty revenue settlement appears to have been made only to be followed by a second one in 1854. These settlements were rather perfunctory in nature and there were considerable shortcomings in the operations. No papers about these settlements are at present traceable. Since these settlements were not up to expectation, in the field season of 1862-63 the usual measurement operation for a regular revenue settlement was taken up by Mr. Russell, the then Settlement Officer, who observed that field survey was rather a very distasteful operation to the people who had the apprehension that as a result of such survey the inevitable result would be an enhancement in land revenue. Sambalpur was then settling down after the rise and punishment of the then rebel leader Surender Sai and his followers; and as such it was considered advisable for political reasons to suspend the settlement operation for the time being. Hence although by the end of February 1864 the demarcation of the villages in *Khalsa* area had already been completed, an order was issued by the Chief Commissioner to suspend the normal activities of revenue settlement but to confine the operation only to the adjudication of disputes pertaining to the proprietary rights and also to the demarcation of the boundaries when required.

After comparative easing of political tension, the Government of India in 1872 once again decided to undertake a settlement operation in the district on the basis of a fixed quantity of seed sown. No boundary or field survey was attempted. Only Khasras or Registers of fields showing each plot with the name and particulars of cultivators, the kind of land according to the seed measure, the extent of land, the nature of crop raised together with remarks about irrigational facilities, etc., were prepared. The appraisement of fields in accordance with this procedure was completed in July 1873 in the *Khalsa* area. It is pertinent to note that no such operation was made for the *Zamindari* areas except in the *Zamindaris* of Chandrapur and Padampur. So far as these *Zamindaris* were concerned, it was on the basis of natural history and existing conditions that *Kabuliyats* were taken from the *Zamindaris* binding them to pay fixed assessment for the period of Settlement. Mr. Russell's Settlement was for a period of 12 years from the 1st July 1876 to the 20th June 1888. In 1884, traverse survey was done by the Imperial Survey Department and subsequently cadastral survey on the basis of traverse plots was completed in the year 1888-89 through the agency of *Patwaris*. Protected status was given in deserving cases at Nethersol's Settlement which expired on the 13th June 1902 in the *Khalsa* portion of Bargarh and Padampur and on the 13th

June 1903 in the *Khalsa* portion of Sambalpur. Immediately on the close of Mr. Nethersol's Settlement, steps were taken to extend the Settlement operation to the *Zamindari* villages. Mr. Dewar joined as Settlement Officer in 1902. The term of the Dewar's Settlement expired on the 13th June 1925 in the entire district except six *Zamindaris* of Borasambar, Bijepur, Rampur, Kolabira, Rajpur and Garhloising. In these six *Zamindaris* the term of settlement expired on the 30th June 1926, that is, one year after it ceased to operate in other parts of the district. Mr. Dewar prepared maps for complete records in respect of the *Khalsa* and *Zamindari* villages of the district. Mr. Mc. Pherson was the Settlement Officer for a period of only 9 months after whom Khan Bahadur Mohammed Hamid took over the charge in July 1922 and remained in office till the close of Settlement operation in February 1926. Mr. Hamid's Settlement has been made current for a period of 20 years commencing from the 1st July 1926. It was the last and the longest settlement in the district. Thus, it will be seen that on the eve of independence there was an imperative need for fresh settlement operation. Besides, after abolition of Zamindaris and part-time collecting agents the administration came in close contact with the cultivators. It was thus realised that without a proper and up-to-date record-of-rights and settlement it was not possible to conduct the day-to-day revenue administration satisfactorily.

In Orissa, a regular settlement was an urgent necessity also because of wide disparity in rates of rent. There were also other anomalies. The State Government, therefore, decided that as an emergent measure the existing rent should be standardised to a certain level and the Orissa Standardisation of Rent Bill of 1958 was introduced in the State Legislative Assembly. But on reconsideration, the Government felt that with so much of anomaly in the rental structure standardisation of rent only by imposing certain percentage as enhancement on existing rents with marginal adjustments would not remove these shortcomings. On the other hand, this would be a source of perpetual dispute among the people and a great administrative embarrasment to the Government. Hence, the Government decided that the Bill should be dropped and a programme for taking up survey, preparation of record-of-rights and settlement of rent throughout the State should be drawn up and implemented as early as possible. Accordingly in 1958, Orissa Survey and Settlement Act was passed and it was further amended in 1962 in order to eliminate certain glaring defects and make the settlement operations still more satisfactory and smooth. In pursuance of the provisions of these new enactments, settlement operations have been undertaken in the Sambalpur and Bargarh subdivisions of the district since 1961.

The tradition of rent-settlement in ex-Central Provinces (now a part of Madhya Predesh) was according to soil unit system. But during the current settlement this system was not felt scientific as this did not take into consideration the situation of the land, facilities of communication and market, depredation by wild animals and vagaries of nature. So villages of the irrigated area of Sambalpur and Bargarh subdivisions have been divided into three classes mainly on the consideration of communication and marketing facilities. This has been so done because other factors like depredation by wild animals and vagaries of monsoon are practically non-existant in this area. Villages situated within 5 miles of all-weather roads or railway line were placed in class I, those situated within 5 to 10 miles in class II and all villages beyond 10 miles in class III. Classification of lands was almost the same as adopted during the last settlement, but divided into the above three classes for assesment of fair and equitable rent. Rates of rent fixed for different classes of land in irrigated areas of Sambalpur and Bargarh subdivisions during the present settlement is given in Appendix-1,

Generally area under cultivation increases, as fallow and forest lands are gradually encroached for agriculture by tenants year after year. But the present settlement in the district has recorded a decrease in the cultivated area in some irrigated villages *. The decrease is mainly due to acquistion of *Raiyati* lands for the Hirakud reservior, for construction of main canals, distributaries and field channels etc. The other important reason for the decrease in cultivated area is prospecting of some area for lime-stone in the village Dungri. There has been an increase in *Anabadi* area as lands so acquired are recorded as such.

(*ii*) **Assessment**

In Sambalpur district, as it existed before creation of Orissa as a separate province, the Central Provinces system of assessment by application of soil factor and village unit rates has always been followed. In this system first of all the tract under the settlement is divided into a number of groups or villages as far as possible homogeneous. The common soils of the tract are also classified and comparative factors allotted. For instance, there may be good soil with factor as 20 while another only about half productive as 10. These factors are chosen after careful enquiries regarding the cost of cultivation, the productivity of the land and from a large number of actual crop experiments on each kind of soil. These factors ultimately furnish only the relative rents and it is expected that before the Settlement Officer goes into the detailed rents he will have formed an estimate of the enhancement which the Tahsil as a whole and the various groups separately may be expected to bear. This estimate is based on general conditions as well as on crop

* These villages comprise those of 59 villages in Ambabhona P. S. (Ambabhona Attestation Camp), of 40 villages in Barpali Rent Camp (10 villages belonging to Bijepur P. S, and 30 to Barpali P. S.)

experiments, land values, rents and other factors. On the basis of this estimate the standard rate for a soil unit in each group is worked out. Having arrived at this standard, the Settlement Officer takes into consideras tion the variations in the groups that would reasonably bear the maximum and the minimum enhancement. Thus the Stettlement Officer gets the unit rate for each village and by application of the soil factor for each class of land he also finds out the acreage rate. This acreage rate is not applied uniformly but is still used as a guide in fixing the rents of holdings; and as tenants and *Malguzars* are given opportunity before final announcement to put forward circumstances pointing to a reconsideration of the matter. The procedure practically amounts to fixing rents field by field using certain factors as a guide. The maximum enhancement permitted on an individual holding was 75 per cent. The method may be regarded to some extent as proceeding from aggregate to detail though the aggregate is only an esitmate. Mr. Dewar, who was the Settlement Officer from 1904 to 1908, has aptly observed that the soil unit system is not itself a system of assessment but merely an arithmetical aid to good assessment.

In this district there was no detailed record showing the amount of land revenue collected under the native rule; but from the amount of quit rent then fixed on some privileged estates and the tributes paid by feudal *Zamindars* as well as from the customary rent and revenue found payable in the *Khalsa* and common village in 1864, it is noticed that the revenue annually realised in cash by the Raja of Sambalpur was very small not exceeding probably rupees one lakh. But there were other sources, the income from which probably exceeded five times the land revenue and these sources included items like unpaid labour, supplies received from rich persons as presents, supplies made on various occasions, tolls levied on looms, nets and garden etc. The revolt of Surendra Sai which shook the foundation of the foreign dominion over the district, though unsuccessful, was a constant check on the British Government which could never ignore the wishes of the people of the area who could at any time rise once again in revolt. So the British Government did not like to overburden the people with high rate of land revenue. As a matter of fact, the administration was more interested in consolidating its foundation by creating confidence in the people at whatever cost. The Settlement Officer Mr. Russell found the total rent paid by the *raiyats* in *Khalsa* areas to be Rs.89,797 and he raised it to Rs.1,09,535 thus creating an increase of about 32 per cent. Still this gave a very low incidence of land revenue for the district compared with other districts of Central Provinces of which it was a part.

Although Mr. Russell was aware of the prevailing low rate of rent paid by the *raiyats* he could not be bold enough to raise the rent appreciably. During the Nethersol's Settlement, therefore, the *raiyati* payments were further enhanced by 35 per cent over and above the previous

increase made by Mr. Russell. The total valuation of the village land including *raiyati Bhogra* service and *Maufi* areas amounted to Rs. 2,03,439 as against Rs. 1,53,561 which was the valuation at Mr. Russell's Settlement. As result of enhancement of rent partly affected by Mr. Russell and mainly by Mr. Nethersol, there was a visible discontent among the people of the area; but this dissatisfaction was neither deep-rooted nor long-lived. The announcement of the new assessment was made during the year 1888-89 and some agitation was launched at the instance of the *Gountias*. But in early part of 1891 there was no complaint whatsoever regarding the assessment and revenue had been collected from the people without any special efforts by the authorities. This showed that the assessment previously made was abnormally low and the people had no great cause to rise in revolt when the new assessment at an enhanced rate was introduced. Mr. Dewar was also surpised to see that the rate of rent was so low in the district of Sambalpur. He found that the average Sambalpur rent did not amount to even five per cent of the net profits of cultivation and as such land revenue was not a lucrative source of income for Government. As the ratio between the productivity of the land and the rate of rent payable was marked by a glaring disparity, Mr. Dewar enhanced the total amount of *raiyati* rents in Bargarh *Khalsa* by 20 per cent and in Sambalpur *Khalsa* by about 33 per cent.

From the above discussion it would be evident that efforts were persistently made to enhance the rate of assessment so as to achieve a reasonable optimum return from the income of land. But there was no scientific or cogent basis for reaching an ideal rate of assessment. Hence during Hamid's Settlement elaborate calculations of soil unit rate as discussed earlier were made and Government decisions were taken to enhance the total *raiyati* rents of lands in Bargarh *Khalsa* and Sambalpur Sadar *Khalsa* by 43 per cent and 35 per cent respectively. It is interesting to note that till then attention was only fixed on increasing the rate of rent payable by the tenants but no steps had been taken to enhance the payment made by the *zamindars* to the Government. This was perhaps due to the fact that Government did not like to create a sense of discontent among the *zamindars* who being influential persons were primarily responsible for sustenance of the foreign rule. But this consideration had to be waived because of the changed circumstances, the most significant being enhancement of rents payable by the tenants. As a matter of fact, this necessitated a corresponding increase in the amounts paid by the *zamindars* to the Government exchequer. Hence during Hamid's Settlement (1926) the *Takoli* payments by Bargarh (including Padampur) *zamindars* and Sambalpur Sadar *zamindars* were increased on an average by 42 per cent and 49 per cent respectively. As a consequence of all such enhancemento, there was an agitation in Bargarh and

a public meeting was convened in Attabira, an important and centrally located village of the Bargarh subdivision on the 25th February 1925 to express grievances due to increase in the rate of rents payable by the tenants. Such an agitation grew mainly at the instance of *Gountias* under the leadership of Shri Ramnarayana Misra of Sambalpur. But the agitation was only temporary.

143. Land Revenue system in Rairakhol ex-State

The present Rairakhol Subdivision comprising the Rairakhol ex State was one of the Feudatory States of the Central Provinces which was transferred in October, 1905 to the Orissa Division in Bengal. The first regular settlement which was completed in the year 1898 fixed the revenue of the State at Rs. 20,121. This settlement remained current till 1917 after which a revisional settlement took place. The revenue of the State was raised to Rs. 25,563 as a result of the second settlement thus marking an increase of 21 per cent over the original revenue demand. The term of the revisional settlement expired in the year 1930. A third settlement was undertaken in 1928 to be completed in 1931. This settlement remained operative for a period of 15 years since 1931 and the operation was conducted for the first time according to the procedure adopted in Orissa. In this settlement all villages were fully surveyed and were placed in 3 classes. A table of 10 rates was formed varying from Rs. 0-4-2 to Rs. 3-2-0 per acre of land. The revenue assessment was enhanced by 54 per cent and the average rate of rent per acre was Re. 1·00 besides one anna per each rupee of rent levied for benefits derived from schools, dispensaries and forests. The cultivated area according to the settlement of 1931 was 46,725·36 acres as against 39,000·62 acres in the settlement of 1917. A *Nayabadi* settlement was also undertaken in 1935 in respect of lands newly reclaimed and brought under cultivation.

No *zamindari*, but *Gounti* and *Maufi*, villages existed in this subdivision. Villages having no *Gountias* were managed by Revenue Inspectors appointed for the purpose. There were 34 *Maufi* villages consisting of 15 *Debottar Maufis* and 4 *Brahmottar Maufis* and 15 *Khamar Maufis*. The *Gountias* used to get commission at the rate of 15 per cent of the rent of the villages besides the *Bhogra* lands. The system of rent collection through *Gountias* has been discontinued since the first June 1961 and it is now being done by the revenue field staff.

There was no regular revenue law in the ex-State of Rairakhol. According to the settlement Record-of-Rights, a tenant had got *raiyati* right over his lands and he could not be evicted without the permission of the ex-State authorities and that only for treason, disloyalty, being in arrears of rents for 12 months, letting the land deteriorate and transferring it without permission or violating any other condition or custom,

thereby rendering him liable for eviction. A *raiyati* holding was only heritable but not transferable without the previous sanction of the ruler. No undertenant or sub-tenant existed. After the merger of the State in 1948, the tenants got the occupancy right and can freely transfer their holdings subject to the restriction that no transfer of a holding from the member of an aboriginal tribe to a member of a non-aboriginal tribe should be valid unless such transfer has the prior sanction of the Subdivisional Officer. *Maufi* tenures, such as *Khamar*, *Khorposh*, *Debottar*, *Brahmottar* and service *Jagir Maufis* exist. The Ruler and his relatives had *Khamar Nij-Dakhal* and *Nij-chas* lands in some *Khamar* villages and they were enjoying those lands free of rent and cess. Such lands have however been assessed to rent under the Orissa Private Land of Rulers (Assessment of Rent) Act, 1959. There are two holdings under *Khorposh Maufi* which were granted as maintenance grants to the distant relatives of the ruler who pay quit rent to the ruler and cess to Government through the ruler. Tahasil system of administration has been introduced in this subdivision after the abolition of the intermediary rights and the pattern is now same as in the rest of the district.

As there was no *zamindari* in this subdivision and as the tract was under a native ruler for a long time, there was no significant agrarian movement or general discord in the relationship the tenants had with the ex-rulers. The agricultural labourers of this subdivision are divided into 3 categories namely, *Guti* or *Halia*, *Kuthia* and *Khamari*. The *Gutias* or *Halias* receive a monthly wage in kind at the rate of 3 *Khandis* of paddy and after the harvest they receive 3 *Pudugs* of paddy equivalent to 12 maunds as their annual remuneration. They also receive 4 pieces of cloth in the year. The *Kuthias* are not given any monthly wage but are fed in the master's house. They get 2½ *Pudugs* of paddy (10 mds.) and 3 pieces of cloth per annum and they tend the cattle and assist the *Gountias*. The *Khamaris*, on the other hand, are a superior class who act as head-labourers receiving monthly wages of 3½ *Khandis* of paddy and 4 pieces of cloth. The above classes of agricultural labourers are engaged with effect from the 1st day of *Chaitra*. There are also casual labourers who get 4 to 5 *Tambis* of paddy per day.

144. Land Revenue system in Bamra ex-State

No regular system of settlement operation was made in Bamra till 1877 and the rents were fixed by appraisement of harvest. The last regular settlement was completed during 1928-29. The two subdivisions of Deogarh and Kuchinda which comprises the ex-state of Bamra are governed by the Bamra Cess Rules of 1928-29. In this settlement the tenants have been recorded as having occupancy rights and the *Gountias* acted as revenue collecting agents. Another minor settlement was undertaken during the period 1941 to 1947 for assessment of rent in respect of newly reclaimed lands.

The villages are classified into six categories, i.e., (1) Ruler's *Khamar* villages, (2) Khorposh villages, (3) *Daan* villages consisting of 37 villages which were leased out to Late Dambarudhar Priya Devi, (4) *Brahmottar* and *Debottar* villages, (5) *Gounti* villages and (6) *Patwari* managed villages.

145. System of Collection of Land Revenue

Collection of land revenue has always been regarded as the most important aspect of revenue administration in a district. It involves an elaborate process and is fraught with many tricky problems arising out of constant public contact. The British Government, which in spite of an efficient administrative system was nevertheless a foreign power over an unfamiliar country, did not like to involve itself in the intricacies of revenue collection and they shifted the burden to the host of intermediaries in whatever name known allowing certain commissions and concessions for prompt and timely payment. Thus between the State and the actual tillers of the soil this artificial class was merely superimposed only for the benefit of the Government and much to the detriment of the tenants.

In this district, which could be broadly classified into the *Zamindari* and *Khalsa* tracts, land revenue was being collected by various part-time collecting agents like the *Lambardars*, *Malguzars*, *Patels* and the like. In the *Khalsa Raiyatwari* villages, the revenue collection agent was known as *Patel* as in the zamindari areas, there were *Thekadars* for one or more villages settled with them for facility of collection of land revenue.

But consequent on the abolition of the intermediary rights in land in the State, a direct relationship between the Government and the tenants has been established and the Government have assumed ful responsibility of collecting their land revenue direct from the tenants. The Tahsil pattern of administration has been introduced and a "Manual of Tehsil Accounts" containing uniform rules for the management of *Khasmahals* and *Raiyati* tracts throughout the State has been framed by the Board of Revenue in 1961. In pursuance of the provisions of this Manual, the responsibility of collection of land revenue now devolves mainly on the Tahasildar who is a revenue officer of the rank of a Deputy or Sub-Deputy Collector under whom Revenue Inspectors have been posted in charge of specified areas depending upon the quantum of revenue demands. There are Revenue Supervisors in the overall charge of a number of Revenue Inspector circles whose main duty is to ensure, *inter alia*, speedy, correct and timely collection of land revenue by the Revenue Inspectors. The District has been divided into 7 Tahasils each under the charge of a Tahasildar who is assisted

by a number of Revenue Supervisors, Revenue Inspectors, Amins and other auxilliary staff. The table given below indicates the staffing pattern of the Tahasildars who take part in the collection work more or less directly.

Name of Tahasils		Revenue Super-visors	Revenue Inspectors	Amins
1		2	3	4
1. Sambalpur	..	1	8	8
2. Jharsuguda	..	1	6	6
3. Bargarh	..	2	12	12
4. Padampur	..	2	13	13
5. Rairakhol	..	1	4	4
6. Deogarh	..	1	8	8
7. Kuchinda	..	1	8	8

The Revenue Inspector is assisted by an Amin in the collection work and it is the duty of the former to make the Demand Register correct and up-to-date. He is also authorised to grant receipts in support of payments made to him and the Government have prescribed an elaborate procedure for maintaining the records as well as the accounts in order to eliminate any possible confusion, fraud or malpractice. Besides normal land revenue, owing to the irrigational facilities made available by the Hirakud Dam Project the assessment and collection of water-rates in the Sambalpur and Bargarh subdivisions of the district have become necessary since 1961-62. Hence, five extra Revenue Inspectors and five Amins in the Sambalpur subdivision and 13 extra Revenue Inspectors with an equal number of Amins have been entertained for water-rate assessment and to assist in collection of both compulsory water-rates for *Kharif* crops and fluctuating water-rate for *Rabi* crops. But there have been resentment and agitation by tenants against realisation of the basic water-rates. The Demand, Collection and Balance figures for land revenue, cess, and miscellaneous revenue for the last 6 years have been given in Appendix-II.

146. Land Reforms

After the abolition of zamindaries and other intermediary rights in land, there is perhaps only an academic and historical significance in the study of the relationship that existed between landlords of the past and the tenants. Yet such study would no doubt reveal the cause responsible for undertaking various measures of tenancy and agrarian reform after the achievement of Independence. Dewar has given a graphic picture of the relation existing between landlords and tenants in his settlement Report (1902—1906). He observes that "the patriarchal relation of the gaontia or headman towards the raiyats is in its essential still maintained and there is little direct opposition between landlords and tenants as such, except in the comparatively rare cases where a rich man has acquired several villages and attempt to manage them all without the intervention of resident inferior gaontias". Dewar regards the relationship as satisfactory and "attribufe these satisfactory relations to the balance maintained between the powers of the gaontias and those of the raiyati body. In almost every case the farmer have home farms large enough to support large families and yet provide ample savings. But in rice country it is difficult to cultivate large areas directly, unless a cheap and ample supply of labour is forth-coming at critical seasons. In rural tracts there is no such supply, and the landlords have to depend on the free labour provided by raiyats. If the latter have grievances in common, they can withhold or at least delay their help, and the commutation money which the gaontias can afterwards recover by expensive litigation is poor compensation for the loss of a harvest".

Khan Bahadur Mohammed Hamid however records in his report (1921—1926) in a slightly different tone. He remarks that "the relations between landlords and tenants are, on the whole, not so good as they were 20 years ago. The raiyat's chief grievances are that the landlords are becoming more and more rapacious in demanding *nazaranas* for consenting to the *raiyats* transferring their lands or reclaiming new filelds from the waste. An active cause of strained relations between landlords and tenants is the *gaontia's* own dissensions with his *hissadars* (co-sharers) which invariably result in the creation of two factions amongst the *raiyats*" F. C. King, the editor of the Sambalpur District Gazetteer, writing in 1932 brings about a compromise between the contradicting opinions expressed by Dewar and Hamid and has aptly remarked that "in spite of these disturbing causes, the friction between landlord and tenant in the district of Sambalpur is comparatively slight as evidenced from an almost entire absence of rent disputes".

The tenants used to render free labour commonly known as *Beth begar*. The *Beth begar* was commutable at the option of the tenant into a cash payment of six annas (37 paise) for ploughing for one

"bel" or shift (about five hours) and 3 annas (19 paise) for harvesting for two "bels". The last settlement report touching on the subject of free labour makes it clear that the commutation of *Beth begar* "does not press at all heavily upon the *raityats* and very few cases of abuse of this institution or oppression in connection with it were brought to light. As a rule the *raiyats* prefer to render the service instead of paying the commuted value".

Under the Government of India Act of 1935 the district was declared to be a "partially excluded area" and hence the normal rules of administration were not made applicable in the district in the field of land revenue administration. Some restrictions were also imposed on the exercise of certain rights by the tenants. The most objectionable limitation on the exercise of tenancy right was that the occupancy right in the district was not a marketable property and this had serious repercussions on the agrarian economy and social life in the area. But because of the fact that the district was a "partially excluded area" it was not easy to amed the tenancy laws for providing necessary benefits to the tenants. The Government, therefore, decided in the month of November, 1937 to appoint a Committee to investigate into it and report on the nature of changes that were necessary in the agrarian and tenancy laws of Sambalpur. The Committee known as the Sambalpur Land Laws Committee submitted its report in 1939 suggesting a number of changes that would affect every aspect of the agrarian life, but these recommendations were not taken into consideration due to the outbreak of the Second World War. One of the most important recommendations of this Committee was that the restriction imposed on the free exercise of the occupancy right should be removed by amending the Central Provinces Tenancy Act applicable to the district. But the implementation of this recommendations was delayed till 1953 when the Central Provinces Tenancy Act of 1898 was suitably amended by Orissa Act XIII of 1953. The amending Act provided that an occupancy tenant would be free to sub-let his holding or any portion thereof in one agricultural year and shall have the right to transfer his holding or any portion thereof by sale, mortgage, gift, bequest or otherwise to a *bona fide* agriculturist. This provision, however, contained a restriction on the transfer of the occupancy right by a tenant belonging to a Scheduled Tribe to any person who is not a member of the Scheduled Tribes. Such a transfer could only be effected with the previous written permission of the Deputy Commissioner. The amendment further provides that all transfers excepting by way of lease or bequest shall be by a registered instrument. The Act also provides that a

transfer made in contravention of any of its provisions can be declared void by the Deputy Commissioner who can also evict the transferee in such a case if it comes to his notice within a period of 12 years from the date of transfer. This Act was again amended in 1956 so as to give unrestricted right of transfer to occupancy tenants. In respect of transfers in favour of Grama Panchayats and in favour of a public institution provided the previous written permission of the Deputy Commissioner had been obtained in this regard. The Act was further amended in 1958 to give an occupancy tenant the right to plant, fell and dispose of timber of any tree on his land except the trees reserved and propagate lac on trees standing on his land. As a result of this amendment the occupancy tenants in the district of Sambalpur got all the rights which their counter-parts in other areas of the State had been enjoying for a long time.

The Orissa Merged States (Laws) Act, 1950 entitles an occupancy tenant in the ex-State areas to transfer his holding freely subject to the restriction that no transfer of a holding from a member of an aboriginal tribe to a member of a non-aborginal tribe shall be valid unless such transfer is made with previous permission of the Subdivisional Magistrate concerned. He is to have full right over all kinds of trees standing on his holding. An occupancy tenant shall not be liable to ejectment from his holding except in execution of a decree for ejectment passed on the ground that he has rendered the land unsuitable for the purpose of the tenancy or he has broken a condition of contract consistent with the provisions of the tenancy laws in force in the area. The interest of an occupancy tenant in his holding shall on his death pass by inheritance or survivership in accordance with his personal law. Moreover any person holding only homestead whether or not recorded in the settlement papers as 'Ghar' 'Bari', or 'Gharbari' or a person who is granted homestead land by the Thekadar or by a competent Revenue Officer shall be entitled to the right of an occupancy tenant over his homestead. There were other types of persons holding land in the ex-State who required protection. These were persons cultivating Khamar lands of the Rulers and persons holding lands on service tenure under the Rulers or members of their family. Provision was made so that persons holding land on service tenure would no more be liable to render the services required of them and not liable to eviction. On payment of rent as assessed by the State Government they could acquire right of occupancy in the land. It also provided that persons holding Khamar or any other private land of a Ruler would not be liable to eviction but would be liable to pay such fair and equitable rent as would be fixed by any competent authority, and thereupon, acquire right of occupancy in the land.

Before the merger the Rulers and their relatives held large areas of rent-free land as their private lands. But with the enactment and operation of the Orissa Private Lands of Rulers (Assessment of Rent) Act, 1958 this privilege was abolished. The Act provides for the assessment of rent on these lands.

While attention was devoted for imporvement of tenancy conditions in Khalsa areas, the question of abolition of Zamindari and others intermediary interests was also felt necessary. With this end in view, the Orissa Estates Abolition Act of 1951 was enacted. After abolition of intermediary rights in land in pursuance of the Act, the tenants came in direct contact with the Government for all practical purposes.

On the 27th November 1952 the first batch of notifications was issued vesting a large number of Zamindari estates in the district. Among those the large and more important estates were Borasambar Bijepur, and Kolabira. Barpali, the second largest estate of the district was vested in 1954 as per Revenue Department notification No. 1967-II-E-A-88/53, dated the 17th May 1954.

Besides the notifications abolishing the intermediary interests in the district as mentioned above, some more intermediary interests have been abolihsed under notifications as mentioned against each below:—

Name of the Estates	No. and date of Notifications
Jujomura ..	No. 421-R., dated the 6th March 1953.
Padampur ..	No. 6996-R., dated the 6th January 1959.
Cherangmal Langipalli/Sashabhut Balimela (San).	No. 19591-R., dated the 16th April 1962.
Dambarudhar Priya Devi Canal Estates comprising 38 villages.	No. 53572-R., dated the 19th April 1963.
Raktapata ..	No. 9592-R., dated the 21st February 1968.

On 1st April 1960, the interests of Gountias, Malguzars and Maufidars in Khalsa villages and those of Thekadars and Maufidars in the ex-Zamindari villages of Sambalpur, Bargarh and Padampur subdivisions were similarly notified as vested in the State.

The responsibility of collection of rent was in the hands of part-time collection agents, namely, the Gountias in Rairakhol, Deogarh, and Kuchinda subdivisions. In June 1961 Government ordered abolition of the Gounti system in the Raiiakhol subdivision. The Gountias surrendered their rights and were given *raiyati* right over Bhogra lands in their possession. But it was found that some Gountias did not respond to the offer made by Government through Press Note for settlement of their Bhogra lands on voluntary surrender of their rights. It was then considered expedient to extinguish their rights by statute and accordingly their offices were abolished under the Provisions of the Orissa Merged Territories (Village Office Abolition) Act, 1963.

The Orissa Merged Territories (Village Offices Abolition) Act, 1963

The Orissa Merged Territories (Village Offices Abolition) Act 1963 came into force in the district of Sambalpur with effect from 1st May 1965, vide Government Revenue Department notification No. 26210/R., dated the 22nd April 1965 and as a result the village offices in the ex-States of Bamra and Rairakhol have been abolished.

The following village offices have been abolished;—

Name of the former State		Name of the village offices
Bamra	..	Gountia
		Khutkati Gountia
		Shikimi Gountia
		Gounti Gountia
Rairakhol	..	Gountia
		Pradhan
		Gountia
		Shikimi Gountia
		Gouni Gountia

On the strength of the Press Note No. 101/A, dated 19th May 1961 in Rairakhol ex-State Gountia system was abolished with effect from the commencement of the agricultural year in 1961. Bhogra lands attached to the office of the Gountia have been settled with occupancy right therein on fair and equitable rent in favour of the persons in actual possession as on 1st July 1960 subject to reservation of a portion of the Bhogra lands in favour of Grama Sabhas.

Thereafter, due to introduction of the Orissa Merged Territories (Village Offices Abolition) Act, 1963 the remaining village offices in merged territories of ex-States of Bamra and Rairakhol were abolished. The law contemplates that such of them who are enjoying Bhogra lands are to be given occupancy right on such lands (subject to reservation for

Grama Sasans) on fair and equitable rent. As per the provisions of law the village officers having no Bhogra lands have been paid solatium on abolition of the offices.

Maufi tenures viz., Kharposh, Debottar, Brahmottar, Dan Maufi, Maufi and Maufi Khairati have been abolished from Sambalpur, Bargarh and Padampur subdivisions as per Revenue Department Notification No. 63561-EAI (ND)-58/64-R., dated the 29th September 1964. Kharposh, Debottar, Brahmottar, Mahatran, Dan Maufi, Babuani Maufi and Anugrahi tenures in Bamra ex-State (Deogarh and Kuchinda subdivisions) and Brahmottar, Debottar, Kharposh and Khamar Maufi tenures in Rairakhol ex-State (Rairakhol subdivision) have been abolished on the same date as per Revenue Department Notification No. 63558-EAI-(ND)-58/66-R.

The office of Jhankars and Choukidars was abolished by the implementation of the Orissa Offices of Village Police (Abolition) Act of 1964. The service holdings (Jagir lands) were settled with rights of occupancy therein on a fair and equitable rent with the respective Jhankars. In case of a Jhankar performing the duties of a village priest, 50 per cent of the Jagir lands will be enjoyed by him in consideration of worship performed.

After elimination of the intermediary interest and bringing the tenants in direct contact with the Government, it was considered expedient to introduce progressive agrarian reforms with a view to granting security of tenure to the tenant so as to induce him to take to better farming methods. With thi end in view, the Orissa Land Reforms Act, 1960 was enacted. Its provisions were, however, enforced in different phases. In the first phase, all the provisions of the Act excluding those relating to resumption of land by the landlord for personal cultivation and the ceiling on land holdings were enforced in Revenue Department Notification No. 63382-R., dated the 25th September 1965 with effect from 1st October 1965. In the second phase the provisions covering the resumption of land by the landlord were enforced in Revenue Department Notification No. 78619-R. 78/65-R., dated the 8th December 1965 with effect from the 9th December 1965. The provisions relating to ceiling and disposal of excess lands are yet to be enforced.

For the purpose of the Orissa Land Reforms Act, 1960 the following persons shall be deemed to be Raiyats :—

(a) Persons holding lands immediately before the commencement of this Act or at any time thereafter with rights of occupancy under or within the meaning of any law for the time being in force.

(b) a Raiyat in a Raiyatwari village in the Sambalpur or Bargarh (including Padampur) subdivisions within the meaning of Central Province Land Revenue Act, 1881.

(c) a person with whom land has been settled for agricultural purposes after the commencement of this Act under a lease from a land-holder or under a permanent lease from Government.

(d) persons entitled to acquire right of occupancy in the Khamar lands of the Ruler in the ex-State areas and persons holding lands on service tenure under the Ruler or under any member of his family.

(e) temporary lessees in personal cultivation of lands in vested Estates, and

(f) recorded sub-tenants and under-Raiyats.

In order to acquire Raiyati right, the temporary lessees in personal cultivation of land in vested estates held under Government are required to pay five times the fair rent as premium, whereas the sub-tenant and under-Raiyat are required to pay five times the fair rent as compensation to the Raiyat landlord.

In respect of resumable land under the cultivating possession of a tenant (Bhag Chasi) compensation amounting to ten times the fair and equitable rent subject to maximum of 50 per cent of the market value of the land is payable to the Raiyat landlord.

A Raiyat liable to pay produce rent shall not pay more than 1/8th of the gross produce or equivalent thereto. The right of a Raiyat is permanent, heritable and transferable but he shall have no right to lease out his lands unless he is a person under 'disability' or is a 'privileged Raiyat'. He is liable to eviction only if he—

(a) has used the land comprised in his holding in a manner which renders it unfit for the purpose of agriculture, or

(b) has leased out the land in contravention of the provisions of the Act, or

(c) has used the land for any purpose other than agriculture.

A person having no permanent and heritable right in respect of homestead land is entitled to get Raiyati right on it or on a portion thereof not exceeding 1/5th of an acre whichever is less if he or his predecessor-in-interest has obtained permission for the construction of such house and has built such a house at his own expenses. Continuous possession for at least six years immediately before the commencement of the Act shall be conclusive proof that necessary permission has been accorded for construction of the dwelling house. The person who acquires right by the provisions has to pay compensation to his landlord. Similar provisions shall apply to agricultural labourers and village artisans and the sites on which their dwelling houses stand.

A tenant with temporary right (a Bhag Chasi) shall not be liable to pay more than one-fourth of the gross produce of the land or value thereof as produce rent. The landlord has right to evict such a tenant only if the tenant has used land in a manner which renders it unfit for the purpose of agriculture, or has failed to cultivate the land properly or personally, or has failed to pay the dues to the land lords within the specified time.

In this Act provision has been made that a landlord wishing to resume land should indicate his desire to do so both to the Revenue Officer and to the tenant concerned within a specified time. This right of resumption is somewhat restricted in the sense that a landlord is entitled to resume not more than half of the land in respect of each tenant. The lands which cannot be resumed will be held by the tenant as before.

Over the last one century, there was no remarkable agrarian movement in the district. Some sporadic agitation took place during the settlement operations when the rate of assessment was enhanced. But these were only temporary, more in the nature of protests and were motivated by the wealthy *Gountias*. Since the original rate of rent was abnormally low, there was in reality no cause for discontent when the rates were enhanced with a view to arriving at a reasonable optimum. The details of these occasional movements have been indicated earlier in this Chapter.

147. Bhoodan Movement

The Bhoodan work was initiated in this district on the 8th April 1954 and the distribution of the lands donated to the Bhoodan Yagna Samiti actually began on the 6th of October 1959. Till the end of May 1963, there were 4,611 donors in respect of individual gifts covering a total area of 7,335·43 acres and the number of donors of Gramadan gifts was 383 and the area covered under these gifts was 4,455·23 acres comprising of 18 Gramadan villages. The total extent of land distributed up to the end of May 1963 is given below:—

Nature of gifts	Land-less families	Area	No. of families with land	Area	Total No. of families	Total area
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
		Acres		Acres		Acres
1. Individual gift	392	528·44	39	183·17	431	711·61
2. Gramadan gift	92	349·67	116	1,508·70	208	1,838·37
Total ..	484	878·11	155	1,691·87	639	2,5[illegible]·98

Till that date only five Gramadan villages were distributed. Under Section 10 of Orissa Bhoodan Yagna Act of 1953, declaration with distribution lists in respect of 2,569·98 acres of donated lands have been filed before the respective Revenue Officers for disposal. The Revenue Officers have confirmed the distribution of donated land measuring an area of 315·28 acres and have rejected lands with an area of 1,478·53 acres. Shri Vinoba Bhave toured the district during the month of October 1963 with a view to giving an impetus to the Bhoodan Yagna movement in the area.

148. Other Sources of Revenue

(i) **Stamp**

Revenue is derived from the sale proceeds of all kinds of stamps such as postage stamps, judicial and non-judicial stamps, local and court-fee stamps, special adhesive stamps and entertainment tax stamps. These stamps are sold from the Treasury and Sub-Treasuries Postage stamps are sold through the Post Offices and other stamps are sold through licenced Stamp Vendors.

Revenue from the sale of different stamps from 1963-64 to 1966-67 is given below:—

STAMP REVENUE

	1963-64	1964-65	1965-66	1966-67
General stamps	4,39,741·27	4,55,506·65	6,86,369·45	5,94,237·55
Court-fee stamps	2,88,372·92	2,72,194·43	3,08,603·15	3,22,608·5
Copy Sheets ..	8,233·75	6,325·25	8,475·00	8,650 03
Special Adhesive stamps.	1,715·00	2,932·00	2,544·80	1,847·00
Legal Practitioners certificate stamps.	675·00	500·00	385·00	420·00
Revenue stamps	90,200·00	98,083·00	1,19,394·00	1,16,312·00
Ordinary postage	5,41,322·30	4,93,576·25	5,79,178·70	5,59,873·45
Service postage stamps.	2,06,756·26	2,02,963·67	1,99,500·36	1,89,702·58

	1963-64	1964-65	1965-66	1966-67
Airmail postage ..	3,035·00	3,724·00	3,217·00	4,104·50
Central Excise Revenue stamps.	6,140·00	8,521·00	5,271·00	5,675 09
National Savings Certificate stamps.	1,120·00	705·00	780·C0	500·00
Government of India insurance stamps.	1,100·00	652·00	675·00	1,400·00
Match Excise Banderols	24,468·00	Nil	Nil	Nil
Broadcast Receiver License stamps.	Nil	Nil	1,02,936·00	1,26,175·00

(ii) Income-Tax

Previous to the introduction of the Income-tax Act in 1886, non-agricultural incomes were taxed under the *Pandhri* Act (XIV of 1867) and the zamindars used to receive half of the tax collected in their estates. This arrangement was discontinued several years ago, the Pandhri Act being repealed in 1902. In 1907-08, the collection of Income-tax amounted to Rs. 8,916 paid by 169 assessees. During 1929-30, the collection amounted to Rs. 1,02,215 and the number of income-tax payers being 293. The following figures show the collection during 1965-66 and 1966-67.

1965-66	.. Rs. 81,36,000
1966-67	.. Rs. 1,18,25,000

(iii) Central Excise

There is one Superintendent of Central Excise for Sambalpur circle with headquarters at Sambalpur who is assisted by a Deputy Superintendent, posted at Brajarajnagar, three Inspectors posted at Jharsuguda for collection of Central Excise taxes on production of tobacco, package tea, cotton fabrics, aluminium, paper and caustic soda, etc.

The following table shows the collection under different heads from the district during 1966-67 :—

Central Excise Revenue—

		Rs.
1. Paper	..	2,42,65,824
2. Caustic Soda lye	..	1,16,846
3. Aluminium	..	54,05,326
4. Electric Wires & Cables	..	8,86,672
5. Cotton Fabrics (Power loom)	..	2,6C0
6. Cotton Yarn	..	1,12,338
7. Sugar (Khandasari)	..	34,534
8. China and Porcelain Wares	..	1,600
9. Silicate	..	30,975
10. Medicines	..	3,000
11. Matches	..	45,564
12. Tobacco	..	28,65,310
13. Wireless Receiving Sets	..	384

(iv) Excise

The Collector is the Chief Revenue Officer under the Excise Act. The Superintendent of Excise is the Chief Executive Officer of the district under the control of the Collector.

The district is divided into four ranges and each range is placed under an Inspector of Excise. The ranges are sub-divided into charges and each charge is kept under a Sub-Inspector of Excise. The ranges and charges existing in the district are furnished below :—

Name of Range		Name of Charges
1. Sadar	..	1. Sadar
		2. Dhama
		3. Rengali
		4. Jharsuguda
		5. Belpahar
		6. Rairakhol
2. Bargarh	..	1. Attabira
		2. Barpali
		3. Bargarh
		4. Bhatli
3. Padampur	..	1. Padampur
		2. Paikmal
		3. Jagadalpur
4. Deogarh	..	1. Deogarh (*a*)
		2. Deogarh (*b*)
		3. Kuchinda
		4. Govindpur (Bamra)

The following is an account of revenue derived during 1963-64 to 1967-68:—

		Rs.
1963-64	..	39,33,040
1964-65	..	42,66,465
1965-66	..	46,63,715
1966-67	..	50,98,727
1967-68	..	55,88,092

(v) Commercial Taxes

For collection of Sales Taxes, Agricultural Income-Taxes, Motor Spirit (on Sale) Taxes, taxes on goods carried by roads or inland water ways and taxes on entertainments, the district has been divided into three circles viz., Sambalpur I, Sambalpur II and Sambalpur III. Sambalpur I was opened on the 10th May 1947, Sambalpur II on the 1st April 1957 and Sambalpur III on the 1st April 1965.

Each of these circles is in charge of a Commercial Tax Officer who is assisted by a number of Assistant Commercial Tax Officers and Commercial Tax Inspectors. Besides collection, these officers assess taxes and detect evasions.

All the three circles are subordinate to the Assistant Commissioner of Commercial Taxes, stationed at Sambalpur who in turn is subordinate to the Commissioner of Commercial Taxes, Orissa, stationed at Cuttack. The Finance Department of the State Government is the administrative department for Commercial Taxes.

(a) Orissa Sales Tax

The Orissa Sales Tax rules were enacted in 1947. In the beginning a dealer whose annual gross turnover exceeded Rs. 5,000 was liable to pay Sales Tax. Subsequently with a view to giving relief to small dealers the minimum taxable quantum was raised to Rs. 25,000.

Receipt from Sales Tax for the five years ending 1966-67 is given below :—

Year		Total collection (in lakh)
1962-63	..	40·41
1963-64	..	50·61
1964-65	..	62·11
1965-66	..	70·35
1966-67	..	65·94

(b) Central Sales Tax

This tax was introduced with enactment of Central Sales Tax Act in 1956. The State Commercial Tax administration are authorised to assess and collect the tax and detect the evasion on behalf of the Central

Government. Statement indicating the collections for five years from 1962-63 to 1966-67 is given below :

Year		Total collection (in lakh)
1962-63	..	22·56
1963-64	..	40·08
1964-65	..	46·68
1965-66	..	48·21
1966-67	..	61·93

(vi) Agricultural Income Tax

In accordance with Orissa Agricultural Income Tax Act, 1947, the tax has been imposed on agricultural income in the district. Persons deriving Rs. 5,000 and above from their agricultural products are liable to pay this tax.

Receipts from agricultural income tax for 1963-64 to 1966-67 are given below :

Year		Total collection Rs.
1963-64	..	1,00,885
1964-65	..	81,196
1965-66	..	53,513
1966-67	..	37,340

(vii) Orissa Entertainment Tax and Orissa Motor Spirit Tax

Collection of taxes on entertainment and Motor Spirit in the district was transferred to the Sales Tax administration as per Finance Department notification No. CTA-157/62-45115-F., dated the 7th December 1962 and No. CTM-8/62-2121-F., dated the 21st January 1963, respectively.

The statement given below shows the entertainment taxes collected from 1962-63 to 1966-67 and Motor Spirit taxes from 1963-64 to 1966-67.

Year		Entertainment Tax Rs.	Motor Spirit Tax Rs.
1962-63	..	64,877	..
1963-64	..	3,16,077	7,36,693
1964-65	..	3,16,877	7,81,076
1965-66	..	3,58,526	8,25,873
1966-67	..	4,87,472	9,47,151

Besides, the Sales Tax administration in the district also realises taxes on goods carried by roads and inland waterways.

Statement indicating the collections from 1963-64 to 1966-67 is given below :

		Rs.
1963 64	..	9,51,623
1964-65	..	4,97,177
1965-66	..	1,29,366
1966-67		1,95,969

APPENDIX I

Classification	1st Class villages.	2nd Class villages.	3rd Class village.
1	2	3	4
	(In rupees per acre)		
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Bahal Khari Pani I Dofasali			
Bahal Khari Pani II Dofasali	9	8	7
Bahal Pani I Dofasali			
Bahal Pani II Dofasali			
Bahal Khari Pani I			
Bahal Khari Pani II	8	7	6
Bahal Pani I			
Bahal Pani II			
Bahal Khari			
Bahal Sadharan	5	4	3
Bahal Jalchar			
Berna Khari Pani I Dofasali	10	9	8
Berna Pani I Dofasali			
Berna Khari Pani II Dofasali	6	5	4
Berna Pani II Dofasali			
Berna Khari Pani I	10	9	7
Berna Pani I			
Berna Khari Pani II	5	4	3
Berna Pani II			
Berna Khari	4	3	2
Berna Sadharan			

Classification	1st Class villages.	2nd Class villages.	3rd Class villages.
1	2	3	4
	(In rupees per acre)		
Mal Khari Pani I Dofasali	7	6	5
Mal Pani I Dofasali			
Mal Khari Pani II Dofasali	5	4	3
Mal Pani II Dofasali			
Mal Khari Pani II			
Mal Pani II			
Mal Khari Pani I	7	6	5
Mal Pani I			
Mal Khari	4	3	2
Mal Sadharan			
At Khari Pani I Dofasali	5	4	3
At Pani I Dofasali			
At Khari Pani I			
At Pani I			
At Khari Pani II Dofasali	3	2	1
At Pani II Dofasali			
At Khari Pani II			
At Pani II			
At Unhari ..	3	2	1
At Sadharan ..	2	1	
Bari Khari Pani I	10	9	7
Bari Pani			

Classification	1st Class villages	2nd Class villages	3rd Class villages
1	2	3	4
	(In rupees per acre)		
Bari Khari Pani II Bari Pani II	5	4	3
Bari Khari Bari Sadharan	4	3	2
Barcha Khari Barcha	10	9	7
Bagait I ..	5	4	3
Bagait II ..	4	3	2
Bagait III ..	3	2	1
Pan Baraj ..	10	9	8
Kachhar ..	9	8	7
Bandha, Kata, Munda I ..	10	8	6
Bandha, Kata Munda II ..	4	3	2
Miscellaneous Lands ...	2	1	1
Homestead lands ..	$\frac{1}{4}$ per cent of the market value in the rural area, $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of the market value in semi-urban and fast-developing area, 1 per cent of the market value in urban area.		
Lands used for non-agricultural and non-homestead purposes.	1 per cent of the market value.		
Lands used for industrial purposes	1 per cent of the market value.		

APPENDIX

Year		Source of Revenue	Demand (in rupees)		
			Current	Arrear	Total
1		2	3	4	5
1961-62	..	Land Revenue	7,19,689	1,60,218	8,79,907
		Cess	60,887	57,773	1,18,660
		Misc. Revenue	..	..	57,960
1962-63	..	Land Revenue	8,28,009	2,17,514	10,45,523
		Cess	62,109	60,071	1,22,180
		Misc. Revenue	..	..	72,090
1963-64	..	Land Revenue	8,14,568	2,93,278	11,07,846
		Cess	2,06,331	54,727	2,61,058
		Misc. Revenue	..	..	93,143
1964-65	..	Land Revenue	8,98,471	2,87,995	11,86,466
		Cess	2,29,823	36,256	2,66,079
		Misc. Revenue	..	..	2,50,346
1965-66	..	Land Revenue	8,75,154	3,19,214	11,94,395
		Cess	2,22,085	55,374	2,77,459
		Misc. Revenue	..	..	2,57,644
1966-67	..	Land Revenue	8,82,887	4,43,558	13,26,445
		Cess	2,20,088	87,343	3,07,431
		Misc. Revenue	..	..	1,67,880
		Nistar Cess	..	..	89,[illegible]68

II

Collection (in rupees)			Balance (in rupees)		
Current	Arrear	Total	Current	Arrear	Total
6	7	8	9	10	11
4,28,276	1,76,390	6,04,666	97,146	1,28,595	2,25,741
..	..	58,581	..	..	60,071
..	..	27,022	..	..	30,939
7,51,529	1,01,776	8,53,305	76,480	1,15,738	1,92,218
57,440	6,980	64,420	..	..	57,760
..	..	55,499	..	..	16,591
7,62,006	1,86,478	9,48,484	52,562	1,06,800	1,59,362
1,52,082	45,456	2,37,538	..	..	23,520
..	..	77,787	..	..	15,356
7,54,376	1,21,908	8,76,284	1,44,095	1,66,087	3,10,182
1,95,279	16,385	2,11,664	..	..	54,415
..	..	1,81,064	..	..	69,282
4,93,581	1,10,930	6,04,511	2,10,132	2,08,311	*4,18,443
1,35,085	17,708	1,52,793	..	..	**88,465
..	..	1,93,885	..	..	63,759
6,99,995	2,14,617	9,14,612	1,54,092	2,28,941	†3,83,023
1,76,246	44,957	2,21,203	..	..	††78,966
..	..	85,273	..	..	82,607
..	..	43,112	..	..	46,256

Remission—Rs. 1,71,441
*Suspension—Rs. 1,72,209
**Remission—Rs 36,201

Remission— Rs. 28,810
†Suspension—Rs. 2,01,655
††Remission— Rs. 7,262

CHAPTER XII

Law and Order and Justice

149. Incidence of crime

The readjustment of the boundary of the district in 1948, consequent on the merger of the ex-States and the beginning of the construction of the Hirakud Dam the same year, had considerable impact on law and order situation in the district. The Hirakud Dam and its subsidiary Hydro-electric and Canal Irrigation Projects gave rise to certain problems relating to law and order. These projects attracted many outsiders from far and near, among whom were numerous veteran and desperate criminals. Not only that they committed serious crimes hitherto unknown in the district, they also changed the outlook of the local criminals and made them bolder and more skilled. In 1949, the first case came to light, where a gang from outside the district was traced to have committed a case of dacoity in which the criminals used fire arms to terrorise the house owners as well as the villagers. In 1952, a group of persons hailing from Nepal committed some ghastly murders while attempting to commit dacoity in the house of a well-to-do milkman family. In order to prevent any chance of detection there. they tried to kill the entire family and killed three adults and two children. The son and two daughters of the house owner, however, miraculously escaped with some injuries. Again in 1954, two cases occurred in Bhedan and Attabira police-station limits where the dacoits freely used fire arms in order to commit dacoity. But the gang could not be located there. In 1955, two similar cases of dacoity were also committed in Sasan and Attabira police-station limits by criminals from Punjab. But during the investigation of these cases, the gang could be traced and principal offenders were convicted. Two revolvers, one 303 smooth bore S. B. B. L. gun and one country made 12 bore pistol were recovered from the possession of the members of the gang.

Highway robbery and dacoity cases occur frequently in Bargarh subdivision on the highways leading from Bargarh to Bhatli, Sohela, Bijepur and Barpali. The criminals attack bullock carts mostly while returning from Bargarh weekly markets and loot the property. The Ganda criminals of the way-side villages are mostly responsible for these crimes. In 1953, some Ghasi criminals of Sarangarh in Madhya Pradesh side were traced to have committed three such road dacoities in Sohela police-station limit.

Besides, cases of house dacoity are also reported from Bargarh subdivision and from Jharsuguda, Katarbaga and Laikera police-station limits of Sambalpur subdivision. In Bargarh subdivision, mostly Ganda criminals are responsible for this crime but in some cases the Magan criminals of Bargarh town are also found to have a hand. In some cases of highway and house dacoities, the Chaukidars (the Chaukidari system has since been abolished) were found to have participated either in direct or indirect way. In many cases, close relations of the Chaukidars were also involved in committing the crimes. At times, criminal from the neighbouring places of Madhya Pradesh commit such crime in border areas of Ambabhona and Sohela police-stations.

In the cases occurring in parts of Sambalpur subdivision, the local Kolh criminals are mostly concerned. There are also some cases committed by Gandas. In some cases it was traced that foreign criminals from Madhya Pradesh and Bihar side had operated with the help of the local Ganda criminals. On the average 20 to 30 cases of murder occur in a year. The principal causes are love and sexual intrigue, grudge, suspecting witchcraft and land disputes. Murder for gain is not very common. At times, cases of infanticide are also reported.

In 1953, one case of human sacrifice was reported from Sahaspur out-post (Laikera P.-S.) limit and in 1955 another case of this nature was also reported from Barpali police-station limit. Both the crimes were committed by Gond class of people in order to propitiate their deities. In the Sahaspur case, the victim was a Gaud (Milkman) boy aged about 14 years whose head was severed and removed. It could not be traced during the time of investigation. In the case of Barpali, the victim was an eight-year old Brahmin boy whose throat was cut and blood was offered to the deity. In 1932, a similar case of human sacrifice also occurred in Barpali village *.

With the growth of industry, more of law and order problems have been added to this district due to labour unrest. Strikes and threat of strikes are quite frequent and deputation of extra Police force from headquarters becomes necessary on all occasions for maintenance of law and order in the affected area. The principal industrial centre is

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*. Interesting criminal cases occurring between 1930 and 1934 have been mentioned in Sri Nilamani Senapati's (the author's) autobiography published in the Oriya monthly 'Paurusha' Vol. II. No. 5. They are quoted in the Appendix 'A'.

Brajarajnagar police-station limits. In 1953, there were some clashes between two groups of labourers in Himgir-Rampur colliery resulting in some rioting cases. In 1957, hundred of labourers of the same colliery also attacked the office and inflicted severe injuries on the Manager and other staff as a result of which the Manager died. In 1956, the labourers of the Ib colliery attacked the residential quarter of their Assistant Manager. But in self defence, the Assistant Manager opened fire on the mob and the mob dispersed. To keep an active eye on these sort of crimes the police department have opened out-posts at Rampur and Belpahar and have made a separate Inspector's circle for Brajarajnagar.

The common form of crime in the district is burglary and theft. Between 1959 and 1962, on an average about 500 cases of burglary and about 750 cases of theft were reported per year. This type of crime is increasing year by year. About 30 to 35 cases of theft of cattle are also reported per year. Generally bullocks are stolen mainly for the purpose of gain.

The railway line between Calcutta to Bombay via Nagpur passes through a portion of the district and so it is an important rendezvous for criminals who commit crime by breaking open goods trains. This sort of theft occurs mostly between Belpahar, and Jharsuguda railway stations and in Jharsuguda station yard. The criminals responsible for this form of crime are mostly outsiders hailing from Bihar side. They also seek the help of some local persons, mostly from Jharsuguda town and other villages for committing the crime. Presumably one of the main reasons for selecting this section for the purpose of their operation is that there are many receiver businessmen at Jharsuguda and Bagdihi with whom they can easily dispose of the stolen articles. In many cases it was found that the receivers mostly belonged to the Marwari community.

Cases of theft of copper wire mostly from telegraph and also from electric lines are also common in the district. There are many braziers at Sambalpur town and also in Katarbaga, Attabira, Bhedan, and Bargarh police-station limits who prepare bell-metal articles and the culprits easily dispose of the stolen wire with them. Instances are not uncommon where the owners of these braziers had set people to commit such thefts. In 1956, this form of crime broke out in wide spread form in the jurisdiction of Jujomura, Sambalpur, Sason, Hirakud, Burla, Attabira, Bargarh, Barpali, Jharsuguda, Brajarajnagar, and Katarbaga police-station limits. A gang of Jhara (fisherman) class of criminals were responsible for these cases. They were, however, detected but in all the cases it was found that they had disposed of the stolen wires. They

are of a nomadic gang having no fixed abode. They originally hailed from the bordering areas of Madhya Pradesh and speak Oriya dialect. They temporarily reside in groups in some villages for some months. Their ostensible occupation is to prepare brass dolls and repair brass utensils, etc., and also begging. On an average 2,269 cases were reported to police yearly in between 1959 and 1962 of which 1,370 were charge-sheeted, 562 resulted in conviction and 198 in acquittal. A statement given in Appendix 'B' shows the number of different crimes committed in the district from 1963 to 1967.

150. Organisation of Police Force

"The Police Force in 1907", observes L. S. S. O' Malley, "consisted of a Superintendent of Police, 4 Inspectors. 11 Sub-Inspectors, 69 Head Constables and 371 Constables of whom five were mounted constables giving a total strength of 456, there being one police man to every 8·4 square miles and to every 1,401 persons". The village Police consisted of 3,131 men. The then district, for the purpose of police administrati n was divided into ten police-stations and twenty-three out-posts. Besides, the Police force of the ex-State of Bamra was in charge of a Superintendent with two Inspectors and the ex-State of Rairakhol had a regular Police force consisting of seven Head Constables and twenty-eight Constables.

There was practically no change in the strength of the Police force after about two decades. In thirties of this century, the total District Police force consisted of a Superintendent, a Sergeant Major, 4 Inspectors, 37 Sub-Inspectors, 50 Head Constables and 367 Constables. Of the force, one Sergeant Major, one Sub-Inspector, 13 Head Constables and 109 Constables comprised the headquarters force and number of constables available for ordinary police duties was 158. This provided one constable to every 14·8 square miles and 3,059 persons The village Police force consisted of 3,223 men of whom 1,384 were *Jhankars* and 1,839 *Chaukidars*. The district was divided into three police circles, twenty-two police-stations and six out-posts.

The district, at present has 36 police-stations placed under 9 circles as mentioned below:—

Circles		Police-stations
Sambalpur	—	1. Sambalpur (Sadar)
		2. Sason
Hirakud	—	3. Hirakud
		4. Burla

Circles		Police-stations
Bargarh	..	5. Bargarh
		6. Ambabhona
		7. Attabira
		8. Bhatli
		9. Barpali
		10. Sohela
		11. Bhedan
Padampur	..	12. Padampur
		13. Bijepur
		14. Melchhamunda
		15. Paikmal
		16. Jagdalpur
		17. Gaisilat
Jharsuguda	.	18. Jharsuguda
		19. Laikera
		20. Katarbaga
Rairakhol	..	21. Rairakhol
		22. Dhama
		23. Jujomura
		24. Charmal
		25. Naktideul
Kuchinda	..	26. Kuchinda
		27. Mahulpali
		28. Govindapur
		29. Jamankira
Deogarh	..	30. Deogarh
		31. Barkot
		32. Riamal
		33. Naikul
Brajarajnagar	.	34. Brajarajnagar
		35. Lakhanpur
		36. Rengali

Besides, there are twenty-two police outposts established in different parts of the district.

The Superintendent continues to control the police force of the district. He is assisted by two Additional Superintendents of Police, two Deputy Superintendents of Police and two Assistant Superintendents of Police. The non-gazetted staff under him include 14 Inspectors, 4 Sergeants, 3 Scientific Officers, 1 Assistant Public Prosecutor, 105 Sub-Inspectors, 98 Assistant Sub-Inspectors, 2 Havildar Majors, 82 Havildars, 44 Writer Constables, 21 Naiks, 17 Lance Naiks and 1,163 constables. Besides, the sanctioned strength of Home Guards in the district is 1,721. There is one police man to every 1,315 population (census of 1961) of the district.

The staff consists of Civil Police, Armed Reserve, Court Staff, District Intelligence Bureau, Scientific laboratory, traffic, etc.

A Deputy Inspector-General of Police who has jurisdiction over Sambalpur, Balangir, Sundargarh, Keonjhar, and Dhenkanal districts is stationed at Sambalpur.

(*i*) **Civil Police**

The civil police consists of 13 Inspectors, 100 Sub-Inspectors, 98 Assistant Sub-Inspectors, 16 Havildars, 44 Writer Constables and 733 constables. Most of them are posted in different circles, police-stations and out-posts of the district and maintain law and order in their respective areas during normal period. The others are reserved for leave and training.

(*ii*) **Armed Reserve**

To meet emergency and to provide guards to treasuries, palace and for vital institutions like telegraph, railway, etc., there is an Armed reserve of police force consisting of 1 Reserve Inspector, 4 Sergeants, 5 Drill Sub-Inspectors, 2 Havildar Majors, 66 Havildars, 21 Naiks, 17 Lance Naiks and 430 constables.

(*iii*) **Court Staff**

There is an Assistant Public Prosecutor posted at the headquarters of the district. He takes up important cases either in district or sub-divisional courts. The other staff posted in court offices at Sambalpur, Kuchinda, Bargarh, Deogarh, and Padampur include 1 Inspector, 13 Sub-Inspectors, 6 Assistant Sub-Inspectors, 1 Havildar and 40 constables. The court staff are responsible to look after the police cases in different courts.

151. Railway Police

There is a Government Railway Police Circle at Jharsuguda with an Inspector, an Assistant Sub-Inspector and one constable. This circle which has jurisdiction over Rourkela, Jharsuguda, and Rayagada Railway police-stations and Sambalpur railway outpost is under the control of Superintendent of Railway Police, Orissa, Cuttack. The railway police-station at Jharsuguda is manned by two Sub-Inspectors, two Assistant Sub-Inspectors, one Havildar and elven constables where as the railway outpost at Sambalpur has a staff consisting of one Assistant Sub-Inspector and four constables. The jurisdiction of Jharsuguda railway police extends from 556·574 Km. (border of Madhya Pradesh) to 477·545 Km. (distant signal of Bamra railway station) from Howrah in the main line of South-Eastern Railway and that of Sambalpur railway outpost, from 514·318 Km. (distant signal of Jharsuguda) to 634·538 Km. (end of Sambalpur district) from Howrah in the Jharsuguda-Titilagarh line.

Theft of property either belonging to the railway or passengers are reported generally. From 1956 to 1962, the Government Railway Police handled 145 cases on an average of which 133 were of theft, 10 under burglary and 21 under miscellaneous. The statement given below indicates number of different types of cases handled during 1963 to 1967.

Year		Total cases reported	Theft	Burglary	Misc.
1963	..	151	107	110	34
1964	..	104	78	13	13
1965	..	120	95	49	16
1966	..	120	76	14	30
1967	..	125	91	13	21

152. Vigilance

The Superintendent of Police, Vigilance, Northern Division, Sambalpur controls the vigilance staff of the district. There are three squads at Sambalpur, Bargarh, and Jharsuguda each consisting of one Inspector and four constables. Besides, there are seven special squads

at headquarters with one Inspector each. From May 1962, till the end of 1967 these squads handled 809 cases of bribery, misappropriation of Government money, misconduct such as showing of official favour, neglect of Government duty, misuse of Government vehicles, violation of Government Servant's Conduct Rules and evasion of taxes.

153. Fire Stations

The only fire station of the district was opened in the district headquarters town on 14th January, 1955. This is a 'B' class station and is manned by one Station Officer, one Assistant Station Officer, two Leading Fire Men, three Driver-Havildars and sixteen Fire Men. In 1967, this fire station handled 102 fire calls and saved property of Rs. 1,24,04,550. The property lost in fire in this year amounted Rs. 20,84,806. A statement showing number of fire calls, value of property damaged and value of property saved from 1955 to 1966 is given below.

Year		No. of fire calls	Value of property damaged (in Rs.)	Value of property saved (in Rs.)
1955	..	34	2,04,850	24,84,500
1956	..	29	52,265	4,07,420
1957	..	52	1 22,400	8,06,400
1958	..	52	2,05,014	15,26,900
1959	..	61	4,68,548	2.46,010
1960	..	68	2,75,549	7,24,231
1961	..	43	42,935	87,253
1962	..	51	8.69,120	2,06,040
1963	..	55	2,52,004	2,78,025
1964	..	80	1.45,918	9,39,180
1965	..	68	80,365	13,29,900
1966	..	93	4.69,135	13,21,200

154. Orissa Military Police

The Second Battalion of Orissa Military Police was established with effect from 1st March, 1948. The Battalion consisted of two Gurkha Companies and two Oriya Companies with the strength of 782 officers and sepoys. The headquarters of the Battalion was first fixed at Dhenkanal. In December 1961, the Battalion headquarters was shifted to Jharsuguda. The sanctioned strength of the Battalion in 1967 was 1,081 officers and sepoys. The Battalion acts as a State reserve and assists in restoring and preserving law and order in the event of any internal disturbances in the State.

The Battalion was deputed to Puri during Navakalebar festival of Lord Jagannath in 1950. In the above mentioned year, this Battalion rendered valuable service in Rantalai, a village of Dhenkanal district where thousands of people lost their lives on account of prevalence of cholera there. The members of the companies were deputed to different parts of the flood affected areas of Cuttack district in 1955, where they performed their duties with great discomfort. In 1956, their assistance was asked for to quell the disturbance in Sambalpur and elsewhere of the State in connection with the States Reorganisation Commission's Report. This Battalion was deputed to different parts of the State during General Elections. In 1960, some staff of the Battalion were detailed for duty in connection with Govind Dwadasi Mela at Puri. The Battalion was sent to different places of the State to control communal disturbances.

The Police Department also have engaged staff for scientific laboratory, building construction for the department, and for traffic, reserve, office, pigeon and wireless services.

155. Village Police

The Chaukidars, though primarily not police officials were performing police duty in villages like reporting commission of offences, movement of professional criminals and arrival and departure of strangers. They were helping police in detection of crime and were also reporting births and deaths of the villages. They were either paid from Government or holding *jagir* lands. There were 2,507 Chaukidars in 1965. The system was abolished in 1st July, 1965 and Chaukidars were replaced by Beat Constables. In 1965-66 there were 139 Beat Constables posted in different parts of the district. But the Beat Constable system was abolished and from January, 1967, Grama Rakhis have been appointed in place of Beat Constables. The present sanctioned strength of Gram Rakhis is 940 of which 868 have been appointed so far. Abolition of Chaukidars and their replacement first by Beat Constables and then by Grama Rakhis has been a costly experiment.

Another class of village police called Jhankars who did the work of village watch as well as worship of the village deity. There were 1,329 Jhankars in Sambalpur, Bargarh and Rairakhol subdivisions of the district. In other two subdivisions of Deogarh and Kuchinda there was no Jhankar. They were abolished along with Chaukidars in 1965. The law provided that the remuneration for their priestly service should be valued at half the rent-free land enjoyed by them and left with them as rent-free while the other half should be considered as remuneration for village watch and should be assessed to rent. After some confused administration it was decided that every Jhankars' holding should be partitioned and only one-half should be assessed to rent. As partition involved some survey work, a revenue case was started for every Jhankar. The process of assessment has not yet been completed although six years have passed since abolition.

A consequence of abolition of Chaukidars and Jhankars has been failure to keep a record of births and deaths. Previously the Chaukidar used to keep a note of every birth and death in his note book and produce it at the weekly parade at the police station which maintained a register of vital statistics. Ever since the Grama Panchayat Act came into force, keeping of records of births and deaths became the responsibility of the Grama Panchayats and Chaukidars ceased reporting them. Grama Panchayats are to appoint a recorder for the purpose, but not a single Grama Panchayat has done so with the consequence that births and deaths are not being recorded.

156. Jails

The jail at Sambalpur was constructed in the last decade of the 19th century. During this period also, the jails at Rairakhol and Deogarh were constructed. The sub-jails at Bargarh and Kuchinda were established in second and third decades of the twentieth century respectively.

Sambalpur Jail

The Sambalpur Jail was functioning as a district jail for a long time in Central Provinces and afterwords in the combined province of Bihar and Orissa. Subsequently after the formation of Orissa province in 1936, this was declared as a second class district jail. After merger of the ex-States in Orissa in 1948, the status of this jail was raised to that of class I district jail to function as a circle jail in respect of controlling the warders establishment of jails of the four districts of Sambalpur, Sundargarh, Balangir, and Kalahandi. The four subsidiary jails of the district affiliated to it are Rairakhol, Deogarh, Bargarh, and Kuchinda.

The Civil Surgeon of the district holds collateral charge of Superintendent of the jail. He is assisted by a Jailor and seventy-two other staff for day to day management of the jail.

The jail accommodates 225 male and 14 females prisoners and its daily average population in 1963, 1964, 1965, 1966 and 1967 stood a' 399·45,354·83, 329·17, 338·55 and 349·67, respectively.

Welfare of Prisoners

The prisoners are given vocational training in different handi-crafts such as weaving of bed-sheets, Gamuchahas, towels, dusters, etc., durry and newar-making, tailoring, carpentary and smithy works, and improved methods of gardening. Recently the brick-making industry has been introduced in the jail. The vocational training given inside the jail are planned to train up different categories of prisoners in simple industries so as to enable them to earn their livelihood.

Medical

In this jail, a twelve-bedded hospital has been provided. Part-time Superintendent of the jail functions as the Medical Officer for the jail. Under him there is an Assistant Surgeon, a Pharmacist and two Nursing orderlies to look after the health of the prisoners and staff. After the intake of prisoners, a thorough medical check up is done and attempts are made to set right their physical disabilities as far as possible.

Education

An elementary school has been provided by the Education Department of the State Government to educate the illiterate prisoners. A trained elementary teacher has been posted. A library consisting of different types of books – religious, historical, social in Oriya, Hindi and English are kept inside the jail for the use of prisoners.

Recreation

Recreation plays a vital roll for the treatment of mal-adjustment in human behaviour. Accordingly, to promote healthy mind, theatrical performances, cinema shows, out-door games like volley, ring-tennis, hadudu or bagudi are encouraged during off hours. The female prisoners are given amenities of indoor games also. Daily papers and a radio set have been supplied to the prisoners.

Treatment of Prisoners

The treatment of prisoners is based according to the rules of the Jail Manual. The undertrial prisoners are kept segregated from the convicted prisoners and even amongst the convicts, the habituals are kept separately from casuals and the juveniles from adults. They are given sympathetic approach and different vocation to correct themselves and to get good training inside the jail.

The internal administration of the jail is managed by an elected body of five Panchayat members. One of them acts as Sardar and other four are entrusted with work to look after sanitation, recreational acti-

vities, acceptance of rations from the store, cooking and distribution of food to prisoners. These Panchayat members get gratuity for their work.

Board of Visitors

There is a Board of visitors for the jail consisting of five official and six non-official members. They pay visits to jail individually at intervals and hold a quarterly meeting to look to the grievances of the prisoners and suggest ways and means for the betterment of the administration. The Deputy Commissioner acts as the Chairman of the Board.

At the beginning of 1967, there were 202 males and 11 female convicts and 159 male and 2 female undertrials in the jail. During the year, 679 male and 11 female convicts, 1,224 male and 20 female undertrials and one male civil prisoner were recieved and 728 convicts including 17 females, 1,244 undertrials including 20 females and the only civil prisoner were discharged from the jail.

The jail is facing serious problems of over population. The capacity of this jail being 239, nearly 400 prisoners are being confined now a days. Steps are being taken to construct more wards.

157. Sub-Jails

The sub-jails at Deogarh, Rairakhol, Bargarh, and Kuchinda are meant for undertrials and prisoners convicted for one month or less. The Medical Officers of the respective subdivisions act as part-time Superintendents of the sub-jail, situated in their subdivisions. The staff of each sub-jail consists of a Head Warder, six Warders and a Clerk. Besides, there is a part-time female Warder in each of Deogarh and Bargarh sub-jails.

The registered accommodation of the sub-jail at Deogarh is 127 whereas the sub-jails at Kuchinda, Bargarh, and Rairakhol accommodate 40, 29, and 26 prisoners, respectively.

The statement given below indicates the daily average population of the sub-jails of the disrtict from 1963 to 1967.

—		1963	1964	1965	1966	1967
1		2	3	4	5	6
Deogarh	..	16·21	30·58	15·37	43·96	62·14
Kuchinda	..	17·66	24·08	17·42	28·88	39·65
Rairakhol	..	6·30	8·77	5·90	8·06	8·00
Bargarh	..	53·06	46·26	44·00	59·92	77·00

The female undertrials and convicts are kept in separate wards Prisoners are provided with medical treatment. There is a Board of visitors for every sub-jail. But in these sub-jails there are no educational, vocational or recreational facilities. Statement given in the next page shows number of convicts and undertrials remaining at the beginning and received and discharged during 1967.

Sub-Jails—1967

—	Bargarh		Kuchinda		Deogarh		Rairakhol	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Convicts								
(a) Remaining at the beginning of the year.	5	..	8	..	51	..	4	..
(b) Received during the year	148	2	66	2	59	1	33	..
(c) Discharged during the year	146	2	70	2	87	1	37	..
Undertrials								
(a) Remaining at the beginning of the year.	35	1	34	3	12	..	5	..
(b) Received during the year	426	13	168	4	138	1	80	2
(c) Discharged during the year	431	14	180	7	134	1	82	2

158. After-care Shelter, Sambalpur

With the broad object of tackling of the inherent difficulties in the situation and to make the effort to change the social out-look towards the criminals and released prisoners, the after-care shelter at Sambalpur was started in December, 1958. There is an After-Care Officer for this shelter . This shelter has the total strength of accommodating 25 male inmates at a time. Ordinarily, an inmate is given three months shelter there.

Only released prisoners are given rehabilition in this shelter. Two months before the released of a prisoner, pre-release contact is made for a number of times by the After-Care Officer. The aim of such type of contact is to find out suitable convicts who would most profitably undergo the after-care treatment which would bring about a change in their menta make-up and ways of living.

After their admission into the shelter, they are maintained, fed and clothed at the Government cost for a maximum period of three months during which time, the After-Care Officer keeps them under proper observation.

The statement given below includes total number of inmates admitted in and discharged from this shelter from 1958 to 1967.

Year	Admitted	Discharged
1	2	3
1958 ..	2	..
1959 ..	42	36
1960 ..	28	35
1961 ..	12	10
1962 ..	17	17

Year		Admitted	Discharged
1		2	3
1963	..	34	27
1964	..	48	46
1965	..	39	46
1966	..	37	39
1967	..	38	35

159. Justice

The civil and criminal courts were under the Judgeship of Cuttack till March 1910 when a new Judgeship was created, styled as the Manbhum-Sambalpur Judgeship and Sessions Division comprising two districts of Bihar, viz-Manbhum and Singhbhum, and Sambalpur of Orissa. The headquarters of the Judgeship was at Purulia. But facility was being given to the people of this district by an order requiring the District and Sessions Judge to hold his court at Sambalpur once in every quarter for the disposal of all sessions cases and civil cases and appeals arising within the district.

The Deputy Commissioner of Sambalpur had powers under section 30 of the Criminal Procedure Code to sentence a convict to 7 years rigorous imprisonment. Therefore, all sessions cases except those actually for murder were tried by the Deputy Commissioner. This continued upto 1936 when the district was again brought under the jurisdiction of the District and Sessions Judge, Cuttack- Sambalpur with headquarters at Cuttack. The judgeship consisting of Sambalpur and Sundargarh districts was created in 1948 with headquarters at Sambalpur. The District and Sessions Judge is subordinate to the High Court of Orissa.

Besides the District and Sessions Judge, the other criminal courts were those of Deputy Commissioner and the stipendiary Magistrates subordinate to him. The sanctioned staff in 1930-31 consisted of three Deputy Magistrates with first class powers, one Deputy Magistrate with second or third class powers and five Sub-Deputy Magis-strates. There were also Honorary Magistrates at Sambalpur, Bargarh, Padmapur, Bijepur, and Jharsuguda, those at the three last named places having the powers to receive and dispose of complaints.

Raja Rajendra Singh Bariha was a 1st class Honorary Magistrate sitting at Padmapur. He kept his records in Oriya.

There were three civil officers in the district,—Subordinate Judge, a Munsif stationed at Sambalpur and a Munsif at Bargarh. The Deputy Commissioner, Sambalpur was exercising the powers of a Subordinate Judge and the Subdivisional Officers and Tahasildars were exercising the powers of a Munsif in respect of cases arising between land-lords and tenants as such.

There were also civil and criminal courts in the ex-States of Bamra and Rairakhol. The respective Rulers were the head of the justice Prior to integration of the ex-State of Bamra, there were Munsif's courts at Kuchinda and Deogarh and a Subjudge's Court at Deogarh. There was also one Group District and Sessions Judge courts for Bamra, Gangpur, and Talcher ex-States. The Group District and Sessions Judge was holding circuit courts to dispose of civil appeals and sessions cases of the ex-States. The civil and criminal courts of the ex-State of Rairakhol were functioning jointly till merger. There was an Union High Court at Raigarh for the Eastern States Agency and Chhatishgarh States.

160. Criminal Courts

The District and Sessions Judge functions as a special Judge to try cases under section 161 of Indian Penal Code, under section 5 (2) of Prevention of Corruption Act, hears criminal appeals and revisions arising out of cases triable by the Magistrates and from appeals arising out of sessions cases of the Assistant Sessions Judge where the sentence of imprisonment imposed does not exceed four years.

The statement given in appendix 'C' shows the number of sessions cases, criminal appeals and criminal revisions instituted, transferred and disposed of year-wise from 1958 to 1967 in the court of the Sessions Judge for the district.

The Subordinate Judges of Sambalpur and Bargarh have been invested with the powers of Assistant Sessions Judge. In that capacity they try all sessions cases except cases where the punishment prescribed under the Indian Penal Code is death or imprisonment for life. They also hear appeals arising out of cases disposed of by second and third class Magistrates.

The statement given in the next-page indicates number of sessions cases tried, criminal appeals heard, persons involved, acquitted and convicted by the Assistant Sessions Judge, Sambalpur from 1962 to 1967.

Year	Sessions Cases				Criminal appeal			
	No. of cases tried	No. of persons involved	Acquitted	Convicted	No. of appeals heard	No. of persons involved	Acquitted	Convicted
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1962 ..	15	68	40	28	7	17	10	7
1963 ..	22	32	13	19	..	..	..	..
1964 ..	20	74	72	2	..	..	..	..
1965 ..	27	74	66	8	..	..	..	..
1966 ..	9	38	38	..	..	..	..	..
1667 ..	5	6	4	2	..	..	..	..

On 26th January, 1966 the court of Assistant Sessions Judge was opened at Bargarh. In the first year of its opening, 9 sessions cases were placed before the court for trial of which six were disposed of. There was no appeal for the year. In 1967, the Assistant Sessions Judge heard and disposed of seven sessions cases.

The Deputy Commissioner and a number of sitipendiary magistrates subordinate to him with first, second and third class powers were holding other criminal courts of the district up to 30th April, 1961. All the magistrates were the executive officers of the district. They were posted in district and subdivisional headquarters. The statement given below indicates the number of magistrates with first, second and third class powers, offences reported to, cases brought to trial and disposed of by them from 1956 to 1960.

Year	No. of Magistrates			Offences reported	Cases		
	1st Class	2nd Class	3rd Clss		Pending from last year	Brought to trial	Disposed of
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1956 ..	14	9	10	8,745	1,074	7,275	7,354
1957 ..	15	5	6	6,565	985	5,069	5,032
1958 ..	14	3	8	7,407	1,022	6,116	6,177
1959 ..	15	5	12	7,435	961	6,726	6,086
1960 ..	15	11	11	5,561	1,601	4,856	5,195

In 1957, five applications for revision were made and one appeal preferred in the court of Additional District Magistrate. In 1958, 1959 and 1960 appeals preferred in the same court were 7,5, 2 and applications made for revision were 6, 12, 2 respectively.

These magistrates were empowered to try all cases coming under Indian Penal Code and other special and local laws.

161. Separation of Judiciary from Executive

Separation of judiciary from executive was given effect to from 1st May, 1961 in the entire district. The categories of magistrates coming under the separation scheme consist of (*a*) the Additional District Magistrates (Judiciary), (*b*) the Subdivisional Magistrates and (*c*) Magistrates with first, second and third class powers. Accordingly, one Additional District Magistrate (Judiciary) has been posted at the district headquarters. He has been invested under section 10 (2) of Criminal Procedure Code with all the powers of a District Magistrate and as such has general administrative superintendence and control over the courts of the Judicial Magistrates in the district. He inspects the courts of the Judicial Magistrates subordinate to him.

There are Subdivisional Magistrates in the subdivisions of Sambalpur, Bargarh, Rairakhol, Kuchinda, and Deogarh. They have been empowered with first class power. These Magistrates exercise all the ordinary powers of a Subdivisional Magistrate and such other additional powers as the State Government may confer on them from time to time. They have powers to inspect the courts of the other subordinate Judicial Magistrates in their respective jurisdiction.

Besides, in Sambalpur subdivision, there are two Judicial Magistrates with first class power. In Baragarh subdivision, there are two Magistrates (Judiciary) one of whom is vested with first class power and the second one with second class power. One of the Judicial Magistrates with first class power has been posted at Padampur. The functions of these Magistrates are judicial in nature as for instance the trial of criminal cases.

In the first year of separation, 4,206 cases were reported to and 2,136 cases were disposed of by the Judiciary Magistrates. The Additional District Magistrate (Judiciary) during this period heard one of the two appeals preferred to him and disposed of three of the ten applications received for revision.

In 1962, the cases reported were 4,906 and the Judiciary Magistrates tried and disposed of 4,703 cases. Five appeals including one of the last year were dealt with by the Additional District Magistrate (Judiciary). Out of them four were disposed of. He also dealt with twenty revision cases which included seven of last year. Most of the cases reported were under Indian Penal Code.

A statement given below indicates number of cases reported to and disposed of by the Judiciary Magistrates, appeals preferred and disposed of and application recieved for revision and disposed of by the Additional District Magistrate (Judiciary) from 1965 to 1967.

Year		Offences reported	Tried and dis-posed of	Appeals to A. D. M.		Revision to A. D. M.	
				Pre-ferred to	Dis-posed of	Recei-ved	Dis-posed of
1965	..	7,176	4,956	6	5	25	19
1966	..	6,745	6,807	2	2	18	11
1967	..	5,781	4,982	9	8	12	12

16'. Executive Magistrates

There are also executive magistrates in the district. These Magistrates are executive officers of Revenue Department viz., the Collector the Subdivisional Officers and such other subordinate Revenue Officers who are invested with magistrial powers by Government. The responsibility of maintaining law and order continues to rest on them and to discharge this responsibility, they are declared magistrates. The Collector continues to be the head of the Police and by virtue of his office exercises some of the powers of a District Magistrate under Criminal Procedure Code. The Subdivisional Officers are vested with powers of Magistrates, first class.

Some of the functions of these Magistrates are police in nature like handling of unlawful assemblies and control over investigation of Police whereas the other functions are of administrative character as for instance the issue of a licence for fire arms.

161. Adalati Panchayats

In the process of decentralisation and to make justice expeditious and cheap, the Adalati system was introduced in 27 Panchayats of the district under the Orissa Grama Panchayat Act, 1948. The statement showing the name of places where Adalati Panchayat courts were functioning is given in appendix 'D'.

All the Panches and Sarpanches elected or nominated elect from among themselves a person who is able to record proceedings to act as President of the Adalati Panchayat. The President in turn selects two Panchas from the panel of elected Panches to form a Bench. The District Magistrate may also constitute special Bench consisting of five Panches of the Adalati Panchayat and appoint a President for the Bench. Every member of the Bench holds office after taking oath.

The Adalati Panchayat hears criminal cases and civil suits of minor nature. The Bench can issue summons, notices, process etc., can convict or acquit and can sentence to imprisonment, fine or award compensation. It can pass a decree in civil cases for a particular amount and for the recovery of the same by attachment or sale of property of the party concerned.

The Munsifs have been authorised under section 96 of the Orissa Grama Panchayat Act, 1948 to inspect the procedings and records of the Adalati Panchayats in their respective jurisdictions.

164 Civil Courts

The District Judge is the head of the civil courts of the district. He is assisted by the Subordinate Judges stationed at Sambalpur and Baragarh* and the Munsifs stationed at Sambalpur, Baragarh, Deogarh, Kuchinda, and Rairakhol.

(i) District Judge and Sub-Judges

The jurisdiction of the District Judge and Subordinate Judges extend to all original suits for the time being cognizable by civil courts. An appeal from a decree or order of the Subordinate Judge lies to the District Judge where the value of the original suit in which or in any proceeding arising out of which the decree or order was made did not exceed five thousand rupees and to the High Court in any other case. An appeal from a decree or order of the Munsif lies to the District Judge. The District Judge also can transfer to the Subordinate Judge under his administrative control any appeal pending before him from the decrees or orders of the Munsifs.

The District Judge and Subordinate Judges exercise the powers of Claims Officers under the Estates Abolition Act, 1952. From the year 1960, the District Judge of Sambalpur has been appointed as Arbitrator in respect of the Requisitioning and Acquisitioning of the Immovable Properties Act, 1952. He also acts as the Judge of the Employees Insurance Court for the local area of Brajarajnagar of this district and Rajgangpur of Sundargarh district. He further exercises the powers to hear appeal under section 21 of Estates Abolition Act, 1952.

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* The Sub-Judge Court at Bargarh has been established from the 26th January, 1966.

The Subordinate Judges have small cause courts powers up to Rs.500. They, as the Tribunal Judges for the districts of Samblapur, Sundargarh, Balangir and Kalahandi hear cases coming under the Displaced Persons Debt Adjustment Act, 1961. They also try applications under the Indian Succession Act, 1925, exercising the function of a District Judge.

Besides, they try and dispose of cases filed under Provincial Insolvency Act, 1920, Guardianship and Wards Act, 1890, the Land Acquisition Act' and Hindu Marriage Act. They also function as Tribunals under section 13 O. E. Act.

(ii) Munsifs

As stated earlier, there are Munsif's courts at Sambalpur, Bargarh, Deogarh, Kuchinda, and Rairakhol. They try and dispose of original civil suits both contested and uncontested. The pecuniary power allowed to different Munsifs changes from time to time according to their seniority in services. The power invested varies in between Rs. 1,000 and Rs. 4,000.

All of them have powers to exercise the function of a District Judge under Part IX of the Indian Succession Act, 1925. All the Munsifs are Magistrates first class. The Munsifs of Kuchinda and Rairakhol are vested with the powers of Subdivisional Magistrates for their respective jurisdictions. The Munsif, Sambalpur, tries cases coming under small cause courts up to Rs. 100. The Munsifs exercise all the above powers within their respective jurisdictions.

An Additional Munsif with powers to try suits in the ordinary procedure and small cause court suits up to the value of Rs. 100 funcitions as Registrar, Civil Courts.

The Judicial Magistrate at Padampur is an Additional Munsif and he tries and disposes of cases in the Padampur Subdivision area within the valuation of Rs. 1,000.

A detailed statement given in Appendix 'E' indicates the number of civil suits instituted and disposed of and appeals heard by different courts of the district from 1958 to 1967.

165. Bar Associations

(i) Bar Association, Sambalpur

This Association of lawyers was formed on 23rd December, 1908 with ten practising lawyers and a full-fledged written constitution.

At present, there are sixty-two members in its roll out of which 57 are Law Graduates.

The Association has its own building and a library.

(ii) Bar Association, Bargarh

This Association was formed before 1920 with five members. The Association has at present 33 Advocate members. The organisation has its own building and library.

(iii) Bar Association, Deogarh

This Bar Association was established in March 1957. It has five members which include three Law Graduates. There is a small library.

Besides, there are also lawyers with their associations at Kuchinda, Rairakhol and Padampur.

APPENDIX 'A'

Unusual cases between 1930 and 1934

1. Parading a head on a plate

Having power to award 7 years rigorous imprisonment, most serious cases came to me for enquiry or for trial. One morning while I was away, a man brought the head of a man he had killed. There was great excitement in the house. Before the children heard about it and came running, the stenographer, a very wise man (Rajib Lochan Pujari) had sent a Chaprassi to take the man away quickly to the office which was very near and informed the Police. When I came back in the evening and heard about it, I enquired from the Police and found that the man murdered was the headman of a village and had been a dismissed Police Officer. He was a tyrant. He had learnt all the tricks of harassing people without getting into trouble. The tenants who were aboriginal got no remedy by coming to the Police or to the Revenue Officers. They selected one of them to kill him openly and bring the head to me. In due course he was sentenced to hanging. The ladies of Sambalpur including my wife petitioned Government for his reprieve and waited on the Judicial Member of the Governor's Executive Council (Raja Rajendra Narayan Bhanj Deo of Kanika), when he visited Sambalpur. The deputation succeeded. They not only got reprieve for the murderer, but also got his sentence reduced to 3 years. Before I left Sambalpur, the man had come out of jail and was living as a peaceful citizen in his village. When I camped near the village, he called on me to express his gratitude. He had become a hero in the eyes of the neighbourhood.

2. Snake Bite

A case in which several people had died came to me for trial. A man had learnt the art of rendering snake venom harmless. It was prescribed in a book in palm leaf. He caught a cobra, extracted the venom by making it bite a plate, cooked meat and rice with the venom and gave it to a number of people to eat. According to the book all the people should immune to snake bite. Next day he lined up all these people which included his 2 sons, his 2 brothers and 20 other relatives and villagers. He brought the snake and made it bite all of them. The first to be bitten was his eldest son who fell dead in a few minutes. The second was his brother who died in the course of the hour. All the others suffered severe agony for many days except a sickly individual who died in the course of the day. The facts were clear. Evidence was not required as the accused made a perfectly true statement of what he had done. After sentencing him to 7 years rigorous imprisonment, I came home and asked my wife if she would like to keep the snake as a pet. It was a beautiful creature in golden colour. My wife sternly refused, even though I guaranteed safety by having its fangs removed.

3. Human Sacrifice

It happened in October, 1932. A handsome Brahmin boy of 8 was playing in the streets of Barpali with other children. An elderly man of the village called him away. By evening when the boy didn't come home, the Police were informed. They found the man who had called the boy away but he denied it. Two days later a well started stinking. From it the head of the boy was found. On search blood stained axe and blood stained clothes of the boy were found in the house of the man. By the application of 3rd degree methods, he confessed the crime and produced a book where methods of human sacrifice were presecribed. It has to be a boy under 12 and the date is the 8th day of the bright fortnight of Aswin which is the big day for Durga Puja. But human sacrifice before Durga is not known. The book probably belonged to the Tantric system. The man was sentenced to hanging which was later commuted to rigorous imprisonment for life.

4. Padampur Murder

In Padampur which is the headquarters of Borasambar Zamindari, a man killed his wife and his daughter and kept the bodies buried in his house. After many months when rumour went about that the two women had been murdered, the Police dug up the floor of the room and found the two bodies. No motive for the crime could be ascertained. It was put down to insanity. The murderer himself said that he believed he had the command of God to kill. He was also sentenced to imprisonment for life, benefit of the doubt being given to the motive for the crime.

5. Kandha Marriage

Among the Kandhas mock kidnapping by force is a part of the marriage ceremony. The Police sent up a case of kidnapping, I convicted and sentenced the bride-groom two years imprisonment. But shortly after, I received private information that it was not really a case of kidnapping, but a part of the ceremony of marriage. On my recommendation Government released the prisoner.

6. Mass cheating

Some persons of Sambalpur went about collecting money in the name of a bogus firm of Calcutta. Some Bengalis of Calcutta were also accused. In their defence was to come a Barrister whom the Police wanted in the case. I told the Police to ask for permission to arrest him when he was in court. He came up to Jharsuguda and returned to Calcutta. He subsequently became a leader and a V. I. P. in Bengal.

7. Jail by Proxy

In a village quarrel, it was fully proved before the Police and in court that an old man dealt the blow which killed a man. I sent him to jail for seven years. Later I heard that the old man was innocent and

that his son had dealt the blow. The whole village and probably also the Police had conspired to save the young man who was the bread earner of the family and put up the old man to be hanged. I go the old man released. The true offender of course remained free.

8. Friendship avenged

There were two friends in a village. One of them married a pretty young girl. The other young man took advantage of the friendship and got intimate with the girl. They were caught in a cow-shed. The young man was sentenced to 3 months imprisonment, the explanation for the leniency being that he accepted the girl's invitation to the crime. After calling for an explanation from the Magistrate I sent the case to the High Court for enhancement of sentence. The circumstances called for an examplary punishment. It was gross abuse of friendship. The High Court enhanced the sentence to two years.

APPENDIX B

Nature of Crime	1963 Reported	Charge-sheeted	Committed	Acquitted
1	2	3	4	5
Murder ..	40	26	14	12
Dacoity ..	9	2	..	2
Robbery ..	21	7	3	4
Burglary ..	661	203	137	56
Theft ..	918	377	231	68
Rioting ..	25	19	4	8
Swindling ..	54	45	36	5
Total ..	2,604	1,192	629	328

Nature of Crime	1964 Reported	Charge-sheeted	Committed	Acquitted
1	6	7	8	9
Murder ..	21	15	4	11
Dacoity ..	10	4	..	4
Robbery ..	18	11	4	7
Burglary ..	622	168	96	62
Theft ..	814	343	222	72
Rioting ..	90	67	13	45
Swindling ..	39	28	19	6
Total ..	2,480	1,181	548	332

1965

Nature of Crime		Reported	Charge-sheeted	Commit-ted	Acquitted
1		10	11	12	13
Murder	..	22	17	5	12
Dacoity	..	3	1	1	..
Robbery	..	24	8	4	4
Burglary	..	588	160	90	57
Theft	.	847	353	164	73
Rioting	..	34	28	8	13
Swindling	..	60	52	44	4
Total	..	2,534	1,212	493	240

1966

Nature of Crime		Reported	Charge-sheeted	Commit-ted	Acquitted
1		14	15	16	17
Murder	..	33	22	12	6
Dacoity	..	8	1	..	..
Robbery	..	13	6	3	2
Burglary	..	706	228	94	17
Theft	..	1,098	458	189	26
Rioting	..	66	46	2	5
Swindling	..	44	31	6	19
Total	..	2,980	1,317	488	217

	1967			
Nature of Crime	Reported	Charge-sheeted	Commit-ted	Acquitted
1	18	19	20	21
Murder ..	28	13	8	3
Dacoity ..	30	11	2	3
Robbery ..	51	17	6	2
Burglary ..	916	318	87	35
Theft ..	1,232	488	156	57
Rioting ..	90	57	4	21
Swindling ..	120	84	13	7
Total ..	3,230	1,513	509	514

APPENDIX 'C'

Court of District and Sessions Judge, Sambalpur-Sundargarh

Sessions Cases, Appeals and Revisions in Sambalpur district

Year	Pending from last	Instituted during the year	Otherwise received	Total for disposal	Disposed of during the year	Transferred to other courts
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
			SESSIONS CASES			
1958 ..	5	38	..	43	23	11
1959 ..	9	30	..	39	18	9
1960 ..	12	47	..	59	20	34
1961 ..	5	115	..	120	15	94
1962 ..	11	54	4	69	29	27
1963 ..	13	27	..	40	17	9
1964 ..	14	55	..	69	35	24
1965 ..	10	50	..	60	29	26
1966 ..	5	48	..	53	14	34
1967 ..	5	93	..	48	17	23
			APPEALS			
1958 ..	46	215	..	261	166	36
1959 ..	59	228	..	287	165	35
1960 ..	87	248	1	336	176	87
1961 ..	73	237	..	310	149	31
1962 ..	130	279	..	409	316	2
1963 ..	91	340	3	434	225	47
1964 ..	162	218	..	380	259	28
1965 ..	93	198	..	291	187	27
1966 ..	77	187	..	264	132	12
1967 ..	120	156	..	276	127	7
			REVISIONS			
1958 ..	9	29	..	38	26	..
1959 ..	12	31	..	43	29	..
1960 ..	14	22	..	36	28	..
1961 ..	8	16	..	24	22	..
1962 ..	2	11	..	13	12	..
1963 ..	1	9	..	10	5	..
1964 ..	5	9	..	14	10	..
1965 ..	4	22	1	27	12	10
1966 ..	5	17	..	22	10	5
1967 ..	7	15	..	22	2	3

APPENDIX 'D'

List showing the names of places where Adalati Panchayat Courts under the Orissa Grama Panchayat Act, 1948 were functioning under each Munsif of Sambalpur district:—

(a) Sambalpur Subdivision

1. Bargarh 2. Rengali 3. Kolabira 4. Kirmira 5. Themra	Within Sambalpur Munsifi

(b) Bargarh Subdivision

1. Sohela 2. Padampur 3. Bijepur 4. Sialkhandtha 5. Larambha 6. Bhatli 7. Bheden 8. Tampersara 9. Attabira 10. Barpali	Within Bargarh Munsifi

(c) Deogarh Subdivision

1. Kansar 2. Gogua 3. Kundaigola 4. Palsama 5. Tinkbir 6. Goudsuguda 7. Kalla 8. Kandhal	Within Deogarh (Bamra) Munsifi

(d) Kuchinda Subdivision

1. Kuchinda 2. Fasimal 3. Govindpur	Within Kuchinda Munsifi

(e) Rairakhol Subdivision

1. Rampur ..	Within Rairakhol Munsifi

APPENDIX E

Statement showing Civil cases and appeals instituted and heard yearwise in the Court of District Judge, Sambalpur

Year		Original suits	Misc. cases	Execution cases	All appeals (title, money and rent)	Misc. appeals
1		2	3	4	5	6
1958	For Disposal ..	49	44	2	271	76
	Transferred and disposed of.	25	29	2	159	49
1959	For Disposal ..	46	47	..	204	52
	Transferred and disposed of.	20	20	..	111	39
1960	For Disposal ..	52	66	2	231	41
	Transferred and disposed of.	22	36	.	128	27
1961	For Disposal ..	50	81	4	219	37
	Transferred and disposed of.	19	47	1	50	25
1962	For Disposal ..	60	82	4	380	64
	Transferred and disposed of.	34	44	.	173	45
1963	For Disposal ..	52	122	5	395	53
	Transferred and disposed of.	31	57	1	304	33
1964	For Disposal ..	55	113	6	304	59
	Transferred and disposed of.	30	71	2	185	26
1965	For Disposal ..	66	276	7	308	125
	Transferred and disposed of.	30	190	3	283	102
1966	For Disposal ..	80	82	6	219	56
	Transferred and disposed of.	79	33	..	165	39
1967	For Disposal ..	4	82	9	151	50
	Transferred and disposed of.	4	44	2	57	14

APPENDIX E—*Contd.*

Civil cases and Appeals instituted and heard by Sub-Judges, Sambalpur and Bargarh

Year	Original Suits		Executive Cases		All appeals (Money, Rent and Title)		Misc. appeals	
	Total for Disposal	Disposed of	Total for Disposal	Disposed of	Total for Disposal	Diposed of	Total for Disposal	Disposed of
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
			Sub-Judge, Sambalpur					
1958 ..	253	121	153	75	93	79	7	7
1959 ..	219	39	139	51	104	24	14	11
1960 ..	612	458	136	45	131	90	3	3
1961 ..	159	87	56	16	15	7	..	..
1962 ..	198	133	127	101	33	29	..	..
1963 ..	433	224	216	72	109	70	1	1
1964 ..	297	152	216	83	71	53	..	..
1965 ..	300	153	214	99	122	55	19	16
1966 ..	437	132	222	71	41	30	4	1
1967 ..	470	274	244	104	36	22	15	1

APPENDIX 'E'—*contd.*

Sub-Judge, Bargarh

Year	Nature of suits: Money		Nature of suits: Title		Executive Cases		Miscellaneous Cases		All appeals		Miscellaneous appeals	
	For disposal	Disposed of and transferred	For disposal	Disposed of and transferred	For disposal	Disposed of and transferred	For disposal	Disposed of and transferred	For disposal	Disposed of and transferred	For disposal	Disposed of and transferred
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1966 ..	51	28	185	74	27	7	76	58	135	58	18	9
1967 ..	54	11	207	47	65	20	105	57	108	47	18	13

APPENDIX 'E'—*contd.*

Civil Cases disposed of by Munsifs

Name of the Court	Year	Institution			Disposal		
		S. C. C.	Money	Title	S. C. C.	Money	Title
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Munsif, Sambalpur ..	1958 ..	21	254	101	32	291	166
	1959 ..	66	414	99	36	265	79
	1960 ..	70	178	137	91	204	122
	1961 ..	52	161	103	48	136	124
	1962 ..	49	144	90	43	237	151
	1963 ..	..	183	170	..	121	92
	1964 ..	22	183	220	16	106	85
	1965 ..	39	170	248	34	112	105
	1966 ..	81	102	179	62	64	90
	1967 ..	20	55	55	35	59	83

Munsif, Bargarh ..	1958	..	..	136	141	..	138	65
	1959	..	..	119	121	..	113	69
	1960	..	..	108	127	..	108	132
	1961	..	..	98	121	..	105	111
	1962	..	..	115	141	..	139	201
	1963	..	..	111	136	..	108	217
	1964	..	..	191	139	..	184	150
	1965	..	..	207	157	..	173	148
	1966	..	..	51	89	..	113	140
	1967	..	..	40	123	..	37	95
Munsif, Deogarh ..	1958	..	..	66	42	..	66	42
	1959	..	..	65	39	..	63	39
	1960	..	..	45	46	..	28	34
	1961	..	..	27	31	..	25	18
	1962	..	..	37	32	..	32	28
	1963	..	..	26	33	..	37	37
	1964	..	..	37	30	..	33	38
	1965	..	..	28	24	..	25	36
	1966	..	..	25	46	..	34	23
	1967	..	..	12	41	..	12	26

Name of the Court	Year	Institution			Disposal		
		S. C. C.	Money	Title	S. C. C.	Money	Title
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Munsif*, Kuchinda ..	1960	..	11	8	..	17	11
	1961	..	24	5	..	2	11
	1962	..	12	11	..	5	4
	1963	..	14	3	..	21	12
	1964	..	2	3	..	3	4
	1965	..	13	7	..	11	2
	1966	..	6	16	..	5	10
	1967	1	16	9	..	12	14
Munsif, Rairakhol ..	1958	..	9	8	..	2	5
	1959	..	12	19	..	9	3
	1960	..	10	23	..	8	17
	1961	..	4	14	..	3	8
	1962	..	5	19	..	2	10
	1963	..	4	7	..	4	10
	1964	..	4	6	..	5	7
	1965	..	4	5	..	3	8
	1966	..	3	6	..	6	2
	1967	..	4	9	..	2	4

Munsif†, Padampur ..	1965	..	..	9	5	..	7	4
	1966	..	..	6	10	..	8	9
	1967	..	..	2	4	..	2	4

* Kuchinda Munsif Court functioned from 1960

† The Court of Munsif, Padampur functioned from 1965

CHAPTER XIII

OTHER DEPARTMENTS

166. Public Works Departments

(a) Roads and Buildings (P. W. D.)

A Roads and Buildings Division at Sambalpur, in charge of an Executive Engineer, is functioning to execute the civil constructions like roads and buildings and to look after their maintenance.

This division has three subdivisions at Sambalpur, Deogarh, and Bargarh. The National Highway Subdivision at Sambalpur is under the control of this division. Each subdivision is in charge of a Sub-divisional Officer in the rank of an Assistant Engineer. A subdivision consists of several sections which are in charge of Sectional Officers in the rank of Sub-Assistant Engineers.

(b) Public Health Division (P. W. D.)

Public Health Division, Sambalpur, executes the public health works, such as, water-supply, sanitary installations, sewerage, and drainage works, etc.

The Division is in charge of an Executive Engineer with headquarters at Sambalpur. The division is divided into four subdivisions each in charge of an Assistant Engineer. The headquarters of these subdivisions are located at Sambalpur, Dhenkanal, Burla, and Jharsuguda. Sambalpur Subdivision is Subdivided into five sections; Dhenkanal subdivision into five sections; Burla Subdivided into four sections; and Jharsuguda subdivision into four sections. So, in total there are eighteen sections under this division and each section is placed in charge of a Sectional Officer.

167. Electricity Department

The main functions of the department are to erect and maintain power lines, supply power to domestic, commercial and industrial consumers and realise electric energy charges from them.

The division is in charge of an Executive Engineer with headquarters at Sambalpur. Under his control there are four Subdivisional Officers in the rank of Assistant Engineers. Two are stationed at Sambalpur and one each at Jharsuguda and Bargarh. The subdivisions are divided into twelve sections, each in charge of an sub-Assistant Engineer.

168. Irrigation Department

To investigate and execute irrigation schemes in the districts of Sambalpur, Dhenkanal, Sundargarh, Balangir, and Kalahandi, an Irrigation Division (Northern Investigation Division subsequently renamed Northern Irrigation Project Division) was created in 1958. This division was under control of Medium Irrigation Investigation Circle (which was subsequently renamed as Irrigation Project Circle) at Bhubaneswar in charge of the Chief Engineer, Irrigation, Orissa.

The division was subsequently transferred to the control of Hirakud Dam Circle under the Chief Engineer, Hirakud Dam Project, Burla, since 1st April 1960, with only four Irrigation Subdivisions, i. e., Sambalpur, Balangir, Kalahandi, and Dhenkanal (Darjang Irrigation Subdivision). The latter two subdivisions were subsequently transferred to Angul Irrigation Division, and a new subdivision (Sundargarh Subdivision) was included in this division.

The headquarters of the Sambalpur Subdivision is located at Barpali. There are four sections under this subdivision.

169. Hirakud Dam Project

The Hirakud Dam Project is in charge of the Chief Engineer Hirakud Dam Project whose headquarters is located at Burla.

There is an Electrical Operation Division at Burla, which is placed under the Superintending Engineer, Electrical Circle, Hirakud Dam Project. The staff consists of an Executive Engineer and three Sub-Assistant Engineers. The Division is divided into four subdivisions namely Power House No. I, Burla ; Chiplima Power House, Chipilima ; Switchyard and Tie Line, and Power Channel Subdivision. The staff of these subdivisions consists of nine gazetted, twenty-five non-gazetted technical personnel and a number of subordinates.

Another electrical division named as Electrical Construction Division is functioning under the Superintending Engineer, Electrical Circle, Hirakud Dam Project for construction of generating stations, switchyard and transmission lines. There is a Civil Works Division of the Hirakud Dam Project to execute different civil construction works undertaken by the Project. The Division is in charge of an Executive Engineer whose headquarters is located at Burla. The division is subdivided into two subdivisions, namely Burla Subdivision and Chiplima Subdivision.

170. Hirakud Research Station

There is a research station at Hirakud to study different problems of the Hirakud Dam and other major, minor and medium irrigation projects of the State and to train Engineering personnel for quality control works.

The Research Station is in charge of the Chief Research Officer assisted by three Assistant Research Officers at Hirakud and a Subdivisional Officer at Jobra Laboratory Subdivision, Cuttack.

171. Rural Engineering Organisation

This department is looking after the construction of own buildings, rural roads and minor irrigation projects.

The Superintending Engineer, Northern Division, Sambalpur, is in over all charge of the department with jurisdiction over Sambalpur, Dhenkanal, Sundargarh, Balangir, and Keonjhar districts. In this district there are two divisions, namely, Rural Engineering Division, Sambalpur North and Rural Engineering Division, Sambalpur South. Both the division headquarters are located at Sambalpur.

The Rural Engineering Division, Sambalpur North, comprises of four subdivisions with headquarters at Sambalpur, Kuchinda, Deogarh, and Laikera. Each subdivision is in charge of an Assistant Engineer. Sambalpur and Deogarh Subdivisions are divided into three sections each. Kuchinda and Laikera Subdivisions are divided into four sections each. The sections are in charge of Sub-Assistant Engineers.

The Rural Engineering Division, Sambalpur South, has four subdivisions with headquarters at Bargarh, Padampur, Rairakhol, and Sambalpur. The Sambalpur Subdivision, in charge of an Assistant Engineer, looks after the construction and maintenance of rural roads only for the whole district. It has three sections. The Bargarh and Padampur Subdivisions are divided into four sections each and Rairakhol into two sections. Besides there is one Assistant Engineer as Personal Assistant to Superintending Engineer, Nothern Division.

172. Health Department

The Health Department has been divided into two branches, namely Medical and Public Health at the district level. The Public Health Department is managed by a District Health Officer and the Medical is managed by a Chief District Medical Officer.

(a) Medical

The curative aspect of the Health Department is done by the Chief District Medical Officer with his subordinate staff posted at different hospitals and dispensaries. The Chief District Medical Officer is in overall charge of the department and is the Superintendent of all hospitals, dispensaries, and primary health centres. At present there are fifteen hospitals, twenty-one dispensaries, twenty-seven Primary Health Centres and fourteen Maternity and Child Welfare Centres, each in charge of a Medical Officer.

(b) Public Health

The Public Health Department deals with the preventive aspect of the Health Department and control various communicable diseases. Rural sanitation and prevention of food adulteration, etc., are also looked after by this Department.

The Department is in charge of the District Health Officer, whose headquarters is located at Sambalpur. His subordinates consist of a District Leprosy and Epidemic Officer, two Senior Sanitary Inspectors, one Special Sanitary Inspector, thirty-four Sanitary Inspectors, fourty Vaccinators, nineteen Disinfectors and five Leprosy Assistants. Moreover, there is an Assistant Health Officer posted at headquarters to assist the District Health Officer.

The district has been divided into 13 Health Ranges. In each there is one Sanitary Inspector, 2 Vaccinators and one Disinfector. The municipalities of Deogarh and Bargarh have one Senior Inspector and one Vaccinator each. Jharsuguda municipality has two Sanitary Inspectors and two Vaccinators. Sambalpur municipality is a separate organisation having a Health Officer, a Sanitary Inspector, 5 Vaccinators and 4 Disinfectors.

173. Veterinary Department

The function of the Animal Husbandry & Veterinary Department is to look after the improvement of livestock including poultry and treatment and control of diseases among domesticated animals.

There are two District Animal Husbandry & Veterinary Officers with headquarters at Bargarh and Sambalpur. The District Animal Husbandry & Veterinary Officer, Bargarh, has jurisdiction over Bargarh and Padampur subdivisions. The rest of the subdivisions are under the jurisdiction of the District Animal Husbandry & Veterinary Officer, Sambalpur. They are assisted by one Inspector and Poultry Supervisor each to supervise the work of veterinary dispensaries and stockman centres located at various places. These institutions are manned by 33 Veterinary Surgeons and Technicians and 78 Veterinary Stockmen.

174. Co-operative Department :

(a) Co-operative Societies

The District comprises of two Co-operative circles, i. e., Sambalpur and Bargarh. The jurisdiction of Sambalpur Circle extends to 4 Sub-divisions of the district and of the Bargarh Circle extends to Bargarh and Padampur subdivisions. The Bargarh Circle was created in October, 1961,

As regards the Handloom Co-operative Societies and Industrial Co-operative Societies, these are under the supervision of Assistant Director of Textiles, Bargarh and District Industries Officer, Sambalpur, respectively. The Assistant Registrar, Co-operative Societies supervises the activities of Central Co-operative Bank and all other Agricultural Credit Societies, Fishery Co-operative Societies and Employees' Co-operative Societies, etc.

(b) Textiles

The primary functions of this Department is to look after the development of handloom, to supervise all the Weavers' Co-operative Societies including the Powerloom Weavers' Co-operative Societies and to train the weavers to adopt improved methods of weaving.

The Office of the Assistant Director of Textiles was established since February, 1962 with headquarters at Bargarh. Sambalpur, Sundargarh and Dhenkanal districts are under his jurisdiction.

One Sub-Assistant Registrar is posted to look after the general and financial aspects of Weavers' Co-operative Societies. One Senior Inspector and four Junior Inspectors have been posted for the supervision of the Weavers' Co-operative Societies and to train the weavers in improved methods of weaving. To introduce new designs two supervisors are posted under the control of the Assistant Director of Textiles.

(c) Banking

An Assistant Registrar of Co-operative Societies, Land Mortgage Bank, with headquarters at Sambalpur, is posted to supervise the Land Mortgage Banks and to look after the investment of the long term loans through the Primary Land Mortgage Banks. The jurisdiction of the Assistant Registrar of Co-operative Societies, Land Mortgage Bank, Sambalpur covers five districts of Sambalpur, Sundargarh, Dhenkanal, Keonjhar and Bolangir. His subordinate staff consists of 4 Sub-Assistant Registrars, 4 Senior Inspectors and 3 Junior Inspectors.

175. Agricultural Department

The district is placed under the administrative control of the Project Leader-*cum*-Deputy Director of Agriculture to look after the agricultural activities of Government. His headquarters is located at Sambalpur. His subordinate staff consists of a Farm Management Specialist, Agricultural Chemist, Soil Chemist, Plant Protection Officer, Seed Development Officer, Agricultural Information Officer, Assistant Agricultural Engineer, Project Demonstration Officer, and Agricultural Research Officer.

The district is divided into three agricultural zones. Each zone is in charge of a District Agricultural Officer, with headquarters at Sambalpur, Bargarh, and Kuchinda. Every zone has an Agricultural Supervisor, two Overseers and six Fieldmen Demostrators. Besides, 48 Fieldmen Demonstrators have been posted in the Community Development Blocks, out of which 22 are in Bargarh, 13 in Kuchinda and 13 in Sambalpur.

176. Industries Department

The District Industries Office is located at Sambalpur. It looks after the development of various industries in matters of state-aid to industries and supply of controlled commodities. The survey of the Industrial potentialities is also conducted by this department. The District Industries Officer gives his guidance about the prospect and implementation of new industries. Industrial Schools and Industria Estates are managed by this department. The District Industries Officer is assisted by two Industrial Supervisors. Besides, there are a number of subordinate staff to look after various other sections viz., Khaddi and Village Industries Section, Panchayat Industries Section, Industrial Estate at Jharsuguda and Industrial Schools. The staff consists of one Sub-Assistant Registrar, twenty-five Block Level Extension Officers; Junior Inspectors, two Techincal Supervisors, five Panchayat Industries Officers, two Assistant Managers, one Village Oil Inspector, One Leather Supervisor and one Hand-pounding Supervisor.

177. Education Department

School Education

The Inspector of Schools, Sambalpur-Sundargarh Circle with headquarters at Sundargarh is the Controlling Officer of High Schools. To assist him in office work there is one Deputy Inspector of Schools. There are four District Inspectors of Schools, namely, Sambalpur, Padampur, Deogarh, and Bargarh; 2 Deputy Inspectors of Schools at Sambalpur and Rairakhol and 44 Sub-Inspectors of Schools who are responsible for Primary, Middle English and Elementary Training Schools. The District Organiser of Adult Literacy Education, in the rank of a Deputy Inspector of Schools, with headquarters at Sambalpur. is functioning to look after adult literacy.

The Inspectress of Schools, with headquarters at Cuttack, is in charge of Girls' High Schools of nine districts. Sambalpur is under her jurisdiction.

178. Forest Department

There is one Conservator of Forests, with headquarters at Sambalpur. Under his control there are four Divisional Forest Officers, with their respective headquarters at Rairakhol, Deogarh, Bamra, and Sambalpur. A special division for Kendu leaf with one Divisional Forest Officer at Sambalpur, is also under his control.

The Divisional Forest Officers of Sambalpur and Rairakhol are assisted by one Assistant Conservator of Forests, each. A division is sub-divided into a number of ranges, sections and beats placed in charge of a Ranger, Foresters, and Forest Guards respectively. There are 18 Rangers, 8 Deputy Rangers, 91 Foresters, and 447 Forest Guards.

There is another Conservator of Forests with headquarters at Sambalpur, for afforestation. Under his control, there is one Divisional Forest Officer at Sambalpur.

The Working Plan Officer I and II with their headquarters at Sambalpur, are under the control of Conservator of Forests Development, Cuttack. The Working Plan Officer I has 4 Rangers, 3 Foresters and 6 Orderly Forest Guards and Working Plan Officer II has 3 Rangers, 3 Foresters and 5 Orderly Forest Guards.

CHAPTER XIV

LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT

179. History of local self-Government

The first Local Self-Governing body i.e., the Municipality of Sambalpur, was constituted without a legislative enactment under the authority of a Book Circular of the Central Provinces Government, issued as per notification No. 337, dated the 17th May 1867. The Central Provinces Municipal Act (XVIII of 1889) which was repealed by the Act XVI of 1903, gave it a legislative constitution.

180. District Council and Local Boards

Further step providing facilities for the creation of local administrative bodies with nominated members was taken when the Central Provinces Local Self-Government Act I of 1883 was extended throughout the non-municipal area of the district. Under this system, the Sambalpur Distrcit Council was constituted in 1883 and two Local Boards were also formed for each Tahsil, onc being for the Khalsa and the other for the Zamindaries. There were thus four Local Boards, known as the Sambalpur (Sadar), Bargarh, Northern Zamindari, and Southern Zamindari Local Boards.

The constitution of the Khalsa Local Board was as follows. A certain portion of members consisted of mukaddams or the village head men, each of whom was elected by the mukaddams of the circle in the presence of the Tahsildar or Additional Tahsildar. Another portion consisted of representatives of the mercantile and professional classes who were elected by a body of electors of those classes enrolled by the Deputy Commissioner. A third portion not exceeding one third of the whole consisted of members nominated by Government. The constitution of Zamindary Local Boards was simple, each Zamindary being represented on the Board by the Zamindar himself or by the Manager of the Court of Wards on his behalf. The Tahsildar was Secr.tary and the Deputy Commissioner was Chairman of each of the Zamindary Boards.

The members of the District Council consisted of the representatives of the Local Boards and the mercantile classes and one member nominated by the local Government.

The District Council had no powers of taxation. Its income was derived from the following sources.

The net proceeds of the road and school rates, receipts from the Cattle Tresspass Act, contribution from provincial revenues for expenditure under the heads Education, Medical, Civil Works, and Scientific and other minor departments, cattle registration fees, nazul rent, permit fees for lorries, income from the pontoon bridge over the river Mahanadi, canal and ferry receipts, sales of stores and materials and staging bungalow and sarai fees. Its duties consisted in the allotment and supervision of expenditure on the objects for the maintenance of which its income was raised.

181. District Board and Union Boards

The Sambalpur District Council was replaced by the Sambalpur District Board constituted under the provisions of the Sambalpur Local Self-Government Act, 1939 with effect from 1st August 1940. The four Local Boards constituted under the C. P. Local Self-Government Act were abolished and instead Union Boards were constituted at Jharsuguda, Bargarh, Barpali, Padampur, and Khariar.

In 1953, the term of the executives and members of the Boards having expired by efflux of time, no further election was held. The administration of the District Board was taken over by Government with effect from 1st January 1954. The Board under the management of Government continued till 25th January 1961 and was finally abolished on the advent of Panchayati Raj from 26th January 1961. There were 26 members in the District Board, the Chairman as its executive head and the Vice-Chairman with some delegated powers.

The District Board was mainly responsible for and was in charge of the following matters :—

(*a*) Education (Primary and Secondary education in the district)

(*b*) Medical (Maintenance and management of hospitals and dispensaries in the district).

(*c*) Public Health including sanitation and vaccination

(*d*) Public Works

There were four standing committees functioning each for education, finance, health and sanitation, and public works.

The District Board had sources of revenue of its own from cess, pounds, ferries, markets, and licence fees, etc. the average annual income, respectively being Rs. 36,000, Rs. 15,000, Rs. 80,000, Rs. 50,000 and Rs. 1,00,000. Besides, recurring and non-recurring grants were sanctioned by Government for education, medical relief, communication, buildings, water-supply, etc.

The annual receipts and expenditure ranged from Rs. 12,00,000 to Rs. 18,00,000.

182. Municipal Corporations

The four Municipalities of the district are situated at Sambalpur Deogarh, Bargarh, and Jharsuguda.

(i) Sambalpur Municipality

Sambalpur is the oldest Municipality of the district. It was established in 1883. As mentioned earlier, the Municipality received legal sanction by the Central Provinces Municipal Act, 1889 which was repealed by the Central Provinces Municipal Act, 1903. The C. P. Municipal Act of 1903 continued to be in force till 1st June 1924 when it was repealed by the Bihar and Orissa Municipal Act, 1922 (Act VII of 1922). The Bihar and Orissa Municipal Act, extended to the municipality in Government notification No. 3634-L.S.-G., dated the 30th March 1924 came to be repealed by Orissa Municipal Act, 1950 (XXIII of 1950). The last named Act came into force with effect from 16th April 1951 by a Government notification No. 3001-L.S.-G., dated the 16th April 1951.

The area of this Municipality is 20·72 sq. kms. and its population according to the census of 1961 is 38,915. During 1951 to 1958 the Municipality had 18 wards and 20 councillors. From 1958 to 1963, the number of wards increased to 23 and councillors to 25 including two reserved for scheduled castes and scheduled tribes candidates. In December 1963, a fresh election was held for 29 members in 27 wards. Two seats were reserved for scheduled castes and scheduled tribes candidates. There was no change in the municipal election held on 31st January 1969.

Besides Government grants and contributions, the Municipality receives (*a*) latrine tax at 6¼ per cent on the annual rental value of the holding, (*b*) water tax at 2 per cent on the annual rental value of the holding, (*c*) lighting tax at 1½ per cent on the annual rental value of the holding, and (*d*) octroi tax. It also clollects license fees on cycles, rickshaws, bullock carts, dogs, platforms, balconies, advertisements and on articles prescribed ,to be licensed under section 290 of the Orissa Municipal Act, 1950.

Government grants and contributions under different heads like education, medical, health, road, etc., received by the municipality in 1963-64, 1964-65, 1965-66, 1966-67, and 1967-68 were Rs. 4,00,954, Rs. 5,94,350, Rs. 6,65,873, Rs. 6,06,699, and Rs. 6,17,393 respectively. During the above-mentioned years, income derived and loans incurred from other sources by the municipality stood at Rs. 8,00,534, Rs. 11,70,534, Rs. 12,66,210, Rs. 13,42,536, and Rs. 15,12,872 respectively.

Th average annual income and expenditure of the municipality were Rs. 28,000 and Rs. 29,000 respectively for the decade ending in 1901 In 1907—09 the total receipts were Rs. 36,000 (excluding the opening balance of Rs. 16·000). The expenditure in the same year was Rs. 43,000. In 1929-30, its income and expenditure stood at Rs. 81,952 (excluding the opening balance of Rs. 7,562) and Rs. 79,573 respectively.

The following statement indicates the income and expenditure of this local body from 1963-64 to 1967-68.

Year		Income* (in Rs.)	Expenditure (in Rs.)
1963-64	...	13,61,574·85	11,19,900·50
1964-65	...	19,56,558·97	14,31,455·79
1965-66	...	24,57,186·40	20,48,132·15
1966-67	...	23,58,289·27	19,96,530·36
1967-68	...	24,92,024·63	21,67,281·49

The Municipality maintains roads, drainage and sewerage, street lighting, parks, 34 Primary schools, 12 Middle schools, two High schools, one Sanskrit Pathasala, three libraries, one dispensary and one maternity hospital. It has also constructed 16 tenements under slum clearance scheme by a sum of Rs. 9,500 sanctioned by Government as 50 per cent loan and 50 per cent grant and manages the conservancy work within its jurisdiction. Besides, it also executes anti-malaria scheme, safe drinking water scheme and vaccination scheme. There is proposal for construction of a model town on the open plot in front of Kalibari.

For execution and maintenance of these works, the municipality has engaged 727 persons.

Statement given below shows its expenditure incurred on welfare measures from 1965-66 to 1967-68.

		1965-66 Rs.	1966-67 Rs.	1967-68 Rs.
1. Roads	...	1,95,978·00	1,29,173·19	1,47,679·93
2. Education	..	4,80,318·98	4,63,322·43	5,66,044·11
3. Medical	..	43,598·66	90,647·04	48,415·07
4. Public Health (including drainage and water-supply.)		1,23,462·34	1,93,085·75	2,10,574·50
5. Veterinary	...	396·00	984·00	Nil

The municipality has framed (*a*) Cattle nuisance bye-law, (*b*) Park bye-law, (*c*) Hotel bye-law, (*d*) Octroi bye-law, (*e*) Rickshaw bye-law, and (*f*) Water bye-law. Except Octroi, Water and Rickshaw bye-laws, others have not yet received the approval of Government.

*Income includes opening balance

(ii) **Deogarh Municipality**

The municipality was founded by the late ruler Raja Satchidananda Tribhuban Dev of ex-Bamra State in 1912.

This municipality was then managed by a governing body of some nominated official and non-official members. The Ruling Chief was the President and the Dewan was the Vice-President. A nominee from among the members was performing the duties and functions of the Municipal Committee. Rules were framed in the light of the C. P. and Bihar and Orissa Municipal Acts and they were made applicable to the municipality. The municipal administration was thus managed till the appointment of the Special Officer after merger of the ex-State of Bamra with the province of Orissa.

After merger, it was reconstituted and recognised as a regular municipality of the State under Bihar and Orissa Municipal Act, 1922 vide notification No. 50/L-S.-G., dated the 3rd January 1951. Finally the Orissa Municipal Act, 1950 came into force from 1st April 1951 vide Government notification No. 3001-L. S.-G., dated the 16th April 1951. Accordingly, the elected Council took charge of the municipa administration from 1952.

The area of this municipality is 7 square miles (18·13 sq. km.) and its population according to the census of 1961 is 6,839. The municipality has nine wards and eleven elected councillors. Two of the councillors belong to scheduled castes and scheduled tribes. The councillors have elected from among them a Chairman and a Vice-Chairman. The term of office of the councillors expires once every five years.

The financial resources of this municipality include Government grants and loans, different taxes and fees and interest from investments; Taxes charged on holdings, water and lighting stand at 3 per cent, 3 per cent and 2per cent, respectively on the annual rental value of the holding. The municipality also collects license fee on cycles, bullock carts, dogs different godowns and slaughter houses. It also receives octroi taxes and fees from cinemas, opera and theatres, hotels, storage of hide and horns and dry fish and from other sources.

The following statement gives the income and expenditure of the municipality from 1963-64 to 1967-68.

Years		Income* (in Rs.)	Expenditure (in Rs.)
1963-64	...	2,07,906·01	1,49,194·16
1964-65	...	1,76,183·26	1,05,138·12
1965-66	...	1,75,261·59	1,31,348·07
1966-67	...	2,84,132·99	1,87,247·66
1967-68	...	2,19,629·08	1,83,259·81

* Includes opening balance

There are earthen drains everywhere in the municipality and they are being dressed at intervals and cleaned regularly. There is proposal to make the drains pucca at a cost of Rs. 50,000, half of which will be a Government grant.

The municipality has provided 50 street lights.

The municipality maintains an establishment consisting of a Tractor Driver, a Zamadar, five coolies and fourteen sweepers for the purpose of conservancy. It has purchased a tractor-*cum*-trailor for the purpose.

The Government in Health Department has posted a Sanitary Inspector, a Vaccinator and a Disinfector under the municipality.

The vaccine lymphs, etc. are supplied by the Health Department. But the municipality supplies the equipment which costs about Rs. 200 per year.

The municipality has spent Rs. 17,774·95 in 1967-68 for construction and maintenance of roads. It maintains about 24 Km. of roads.

The municipality also owns a park. It has spent Rs. 46,944·44 in 1967-68 for slum clearance and constructed 10 houses for sweepers.

This local body has engaged 36 persons to execute and maintain all the above developmental works.

(*ii*) **Bargarh Municipality**

This municipality consisting of a total population of 15,375 according to the census of 1961 and covering an area of 13·21 sq. km. was constituted under the Orissa Municipal Act, 1950 (Orissa Act XXIII of 1950) in Government notification No. 5124/L.S.-G. dated the 28th August 1951. The municipality commenced its functioning since 1st May 1952.

Prior to this, there was a Sanitation Committee at Bargrah constituted under the Central Provinces Village Sanitation Act 1902 and it continued up to 1941 when a Union Board was formed here under the Sambalpur Local Self-Government Act, 1939 (Orissa Act VI of 1939). The Union Board was replaced by the present municipality.

The area of the municipality has been divided into 15 wards returning fifteen councillors for non-reserved seats and one councillor for a reserved seat for scheduled castes. The members elect a Chairman and a Vice-Chairman from among themselves. The last election of the municipality was held on 30th January 1969.

The municipality has an Executive Officer on part-time basis,

Besides Government grants and loans, this local body realises the following taxes and fees:—

(*a*) Holding tax at 1¼ p. c. on the annual value of holdings

(*b*) Latrine tax at 2 p. c. on the annual value of holdings

(*c*) Profession tax at the minimum rate prescribed u/s 131 (1) (*a*) Orissa Municipal Act.

(*d*) Octroi

(*e*) Fees on dogs, horses and other animals

(*f*) License fees for carts and carriages

(*g*) Licenses fees for offensive and dangerous trade

(*h*) License fees for public resort and other entertainments

(*i*) Market fees

(*j*) Rent on Municipal lands and buildings

The statement given below states the income and expenditure of the municipality from 1963-64 to 1967-68—

Years		Income* (in Rs.)	Expenditure (in Rs.)
1963-64	..	1,55,352·15	1,09,715·75
1964-65	..	3,88,083·54	2,07,568·41
1965-66	..	5,55,779·70	4,13,059·62
1966-67	..	5,26.011·84	4,51,201·08
1967-68	..	4,68,252·36	4,04 417·02

The municipality installed a ten-horse power water pump to provide pipe water to the town. The water supply was quite inadequate and was stopped. At present the Public Health Department supply pipe water to the town by installing more powerful pump. The municipality maintains 27 wells. There are 19 tanks within the municipal area.

This local body has provided 870 metres of pucca drains and 28 km. of roads. It has employed 158 persons which include 9 for office establishment 12 for tax collection, 33 for octroi collection, 3 for lighting, seven for drainage, 26 for latrines, 6 for cess-pools. 41 for road cleaning, 6 for trucks, 8 for public works, 2 for compost, and one each to look after water-supply, park, education, materinity centre and pounds.

An Assistant Health Officer, a Sanitary Inspector, a Vaccinator, and a Disinfector appointed by the Health Department of Government of Orissa have been posted under the municipality.

* Includes opening balance

The municipality has provided electric street lights throughout the town and kerosine-street lamps in small streets. It maintains also a childrens' park.

Statement given below gives expenditure incurred by the municipality on roads, education, medical, and health from 1963-64 to 1966-67—

Year		Public works Rs.	Education Rs.	Medical Rs.	Public Health Rs.
1963-64	..	15,063·82	..	1,420·00	52,297·96
1964-65	..	34,378·24	1,32·52	1,396·00	65,469·59
1965-66	..	26,340·79	1,570·60	1,576·00	2,09,637·68
1966-67	..	64,911·27	17,490·85	1,982·00	1,28,748·63

The municipality has framed the following bye-laws:—

1. Rickshaw bye-law
2. Regulation of Traffic on roads
3. Water Works bye-law
4. Octroi (Amendment) bye-law

Government have approved the Octroi bye-law

(iv) Jharsuguda Municipality

Jharsuguda town had Sanitation Committee till 1941, when a Union Board was constituted. The Union Board became defunct from the 1st May, 1952 and a municipality was constituted in Government notification No. 5124-L.S.-G., dated the 28th August, 1951. The Orissa Municipal Act, 1950, was enforced in this municipality from 1952-53.

The area of the municipality is 10·00 sq. miles (25·90 sq. km.) There are 13 wards with a population of 19,227 according to the census of 1961. The council consists of 15 members—13 for thirteen wards, one for scheduled castes and another for scheduled tribes. The councillors elect a Chairman and a Vice-Chairman from among them. The first election of the councillors was held in 1952 and the last in December, 1969. The office of the council is for five years.

Besides Government grants and loans, the mucinipality realises taxes on holding at 5 per cent on the annual rental value of the holding, taxes on lighting, carts, latrine, cycles and cycle rickshaws, and octro

duty. It also collects license fees on the commodities coming under sections 290 (*i*) and 316(*i*) of the O. M. Act, 1950. The other financial sources include fees for rendering service, fees for registration of dogs and rent on municipal lands.

The following statment gives the income and expenditure of the municipality since 1963-64 :—

Year		Income* Rs.	Expenditure Rs.
1963-64	..	3,64,394·18	2,32,982·18
1964-65	..	4,74,960·54	1,93,308·26
1965-66	..	6,42,184·87	3,85,782·49
1966-67	..	6,79,748·19	4,71,945·78
1967-68	..	6,74,572·95	4,82,351·83

The municipality has undertaken cleaning of roads and drains. Vaccination is done through the Sanitary Inspectors and Vaccinators deputed to this municipality by the Public Health Department of State Government. It supplies pipe water and has dug some wells. It provides 475 street lights within its area. The municipality maintains 25 km. of roads and 8 km. of drains. It also maintains a High School, a Middle School, two libraries and the town hall and has constructed quaters for scavengers. It has engaged 177 employees.

In 1967-68, this local body has spent Rs. 53.420·34 on education, Rs. 54,625·80 on medical, and health and Rs. 46,504·62 on development works like roads, drains etc.

The Master Plan of Jharsuguda town is completed. The scheme was taken up in accordance with the provisions of the Orissa Town Planning and Improvement Trust Act, 1956.

The municipality has framed the following bye-laws:

(*a*) Rickshaw bye-law

(*b*) Advertisement bye-laws

(*c*) Octroi bye-law

(*d*) Conservancy bye-law

(*e*) Gratuity bye-law

The first three bye-laws have been approved by Government

* Includes opening balance

183. Notified Area Councils

(i) Notified Area Council, Hirakud

The Notified Area Council at Hirakud started functioning from 12th June, 1964. The area of this local body which is divided into twelve wards, is 8·81 sq. km. The population according to the 1961 Census is 8,593. The Council consists of 15 nominated members from among whom 8 are officials and the rest non-officials. This local body maintains 15 km. of motorable and 6 km. of unmotorable roads. It has constructed two Primary School buildings and contributes for maintenance of two High Schools at Hirakud. It also helps some local libraries. The number of persons employed by this local body to look after its various activities is 27.

Besides Government grants, advances and loans, the Notified Area Council earns from taxes on holdings, carriages and from offensive and dangerous trade. It also levies Octroi duty and collects fees on market and pounds. The income and expenditure of the local body from 1964-65 to 1968-69 are as follows:—

Years		Income* (Rs.)	Expenditure (Rs.)
1964-65	..	62,114·41	48,040·42
1965-66	..	83,307·58	22,020·65
1966-67	..	4,70,410·40	3,50,600·64
1967-68	..	3,13,893·64	2,23,215·30
1968-69	..	2,92,707·13	2,57,405·17

The Rickshaw bye-law framed by this Notified Area Council has not yet been approved by the Government.

(ii) Notified Area Council, Burla

This local body with an area of 15·28 sq. km. and population (1961 Census) of 10,230 commenced functioning from 23rd June, 1964. The Notified Area Council consists of 12 wards, and 13 nominated members including the Chairman and the Vice-Chairman. Of the members, 8 are officials and the rest 5 are non-officials. It has employed 37 persons. It maintains 3 Lower Primary Schools, provides street lights, and looks

*Includes opening balance

to the sewerage and other sanitary works. The main sources of income of the local body are from Government g ants and contributions and from taxes on holdings, carriages and on offensive and dangerous trade It also levies fees and rents on markets, kine houses, shops and stallse

The statement below gives the income and expenditure of the local body from 1964-65 to 1967-68

Year		Income* (Rs.)	Expenditure (Rs.)
1964-65	..	17,083·78	7,172·85
1965-66	..	65,266·57	24,713·04
1966-67	...	72,358·50	41,920·70
1967-68	..	44,930·96	1,39,717·86

(*iii*) **Notified Area Council, Padampur**

The Notified Area Council which started functioning from 2nd April, 1965, has an area of 8·03 sq. miles (20·79 sq. km.). The council is divided into 11 wards from which 13 members are elected. Of the members, two belong to sheduled castes and scheduled tribes. The last election for this local council was held in December, 1968. The local body collects Grama Panchayat taxes and taxes on carriages. It also levies fees on market, cattle pound, conservancy and rent on lands and buildings. Besides, it also receives Government grants and loans.

It supplies street lights, pipe water, maintains 16 km. of roads, one Upper Primary School and looks to sanitation and conservancy. It has engaged 44 persons.

The income and expenditure of the Notified Area Council since its inception are given below:--

Year		Income* (Rs.)	Expenditure (Rs.)
1965-66	..	71,074·95	22,791·06
1966-67	..	1,74,086·42	60,686·64
1967-68	..	1,87,996·76	95,430·28

*Includes opening balance

(*iv*) **Brajarajnagar Notified Area Council**

This Notified Area Council started functioning at Brajarajnagar from November, 1968. Before election it had 6 official and 9 non-official members. All were nominated. The first election of this Notified Area Council was held in February 1970. For the purpose of this election, the local body was divided into 17 wards. Twenty Councillors including three from scheduled castes and scheduled tribes were elected by adult franchise.

Election of Councillors, Chairman and Vice-Chairman

As mentioned earlier, each Councillor of the four Municipalities and Notified Area Councils at Padampur and Brajarajnagar elected by the adults of his ward, holds office for five years. In other Notified Area Councils, the members are nominated by Government. The elected Councillors elect Chairman, and Vice-Chairman, among themselves. But in a nominated Council, the Chairman and Vice-Chairman are appointed by Government.

The Council is responsible for the smooth administration of the local body. The Council has to discharge the duties devolving upon them under the Orissa Municipal Act, 1950 with regard to all or any of the following:—

(a) Finance

(b) Public Health, hospitals and dispensaries

(c) Public works

(d) Education

(e) Any other special subject relating to the purposes of the Act.

The powers and duties of the Chairman and the Vice-Chairman of all the local bodies are same as provided in theOrissa Municipal Act,1950

There are Executive Officers appointed by Government of Orissa. They, either part-time or hole-time, look to the day to dayadminis tration of these local bodies.

184. Town Planning

During the 3rd Five-Year Plan (1961-62 to 1965-66) the Town Planning Organisation of the State selected six towns of the district, viz., Brajarajnagar, Burla, Hirakud, Jharsuguda, Sambalpur, and Bargarh for preparation of the Master Plans. By the end of 1970, Master Plans in respect of five towns, viz., Hirakud, Jharsuguda Brajarajnagar, Burla, and Sambalpur were completed. Master Plan in respect of Bargarh is in progress. The Town Planning unit at Sambalpur which works under the State Town Planning Organisation looks to the preparation of Master Plans for the towns of the district.

185. Zilla Parishad

The Zilla Parishad which started functioning from 14th February, 1961 was constituted under the provisions of the Orissa Panchayat Samiti and Zilla Parishad Act, 1959 (Orissa Act VII of 1960), with effect from the 26th January, 1961.

The Parishad was constituted of both official and non-official members. There were six standing committees appointed to advise the Parishad. The Parishad was functioning under a Chairman who was assisted by a Vice-Chairman.

The Parishad was responsible for the preparation of the district plans for development works including industrial developments. Besides' the Parishad had supervisory functions over the activities of the Panchayat Samitis and Grama Panchayats.

The activities of Zilla Parishad all over the State failed to satisfy the Government, as a result of which the organisation were replaced by the District Advisory Councils on 1st November, 1968.*

The District Advisory Council for Sambalpur is constituted of 111 members which include the Collector (Member-Convener), all Members of Legislative Assembly and Members of Parliament of the district, the Chairman of all the Panchayat Samitis of the district, Chairman of four municipalities, namely, Sambalpur, Deogarh, Jharsuguda and Bargarh, Presidents of Central Co-operative Bank and District Land Mortgage Bank, Sambalpur, six Subdivisional Officers of the district and other district level officers.

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*Since 14th November, 1970 the District Advisory Council has been replaced by the District Development Advisory Board. Collector of the district has been declared as the Chairman of the Board. The members of the Board are M. L.As. M. Ps. (Lok Sabha) whose jurisdiction comes under the district, M. Ps., (Rajya Sabha) whose place of residence is in the district, all the Chairman of the Panchayat, Samitis of the district, all the Chairman of the Municipal Councils. Presidents of the Central Co-operative Bank, Land Mortage Banks, all members of the District Development Committee and any representatives of the public declared as members by Government notification from time to time. The Minister, Deputy Ministers, Speaker and Deputy Speaker are entitled to nominate any person from their constituencies to represent them in the Board.

The meetings of the Board are convened by the Collector. He presides over the meetings.

The function of the Board is to advise Government regarding the formulation of activities at the district level, to consider and advise as to how best the developmental activities can be expeditiously and efficiently executed in the district and suggest ways and means to remove bottle-necks in the execution of development works and help the district authorities in enlisting the participation of the people for implementation of the schemes like high-yeilding varietis, multi-cropping, fertiliser use, water resources management, etc., where such co-operation and participation is essential for smooth working of schemes.

The function of the Advisory Councils is to advise the Government on development and other activities referred to it, from time to time. It may also consider and advise Government as to how best the developmental activities can be expeditiously and efficiently executed and suggest ways and means to remove bottle-necks in the execution of developmental works.

186. Panchayat Samitis

There are 29 Panchayat Samitis in the district each having a Chairman, a Vice-Chairman and members. The Block Development Officers act as Executive Officers. The Panchayat Samitis were constituted from 26th January, 1961 under the provisions of the Orissa Panchayat Samit and Zilla Parishad Act.

The Panchayat Samitis consist of both official and non-official members. The official members include Block Development Officer and the representatives of various State Government Departments in the district. The non-official members are Sarpanchs of Grama Panchayats and an additional representative elected from each Grama Panchayat area not being a member of the Grama Panchayat. Women, and scheduled castes and scheduled tribes are duly represented in the Samitis. Non-official members hold office for 4 years. The Chairman and Vice-Chairman of the Samitis are elected from among the non-official members. Official and non-official members are allowed to take part in the discussion of the Panchayat Samitis meetings. But only non-official members are entitled to vote.

The Panchayat Samitis are responsible for executing all the development works in their jurisdiction through the agencies of the Grama Panchayats. The other function of the Samitis include control and spread of primary education, management of trusts and endowments which Government may entrust, registration of birth and deaths, and vaccination. The Samitis can also supervise the work of the Grama Panchayats.

Government grants and loans are the main sources of income of the Panchayat Samitis.

The Panchayat Samitis of the district received Rs. 5,35,760 as grant-in-aids during 1968-69.

A list of the Panchayat Samitis of the district with headquarters has been given in appendix.

187. Grama Panchayats

From before the British period, the Gountia system was prevailing. The Gountia was the headman of the village and was holding the post by virtue of his birth. Under him, there were two or three persons who were called Dakua, Jhankar, Nariha, and Chaukidar. They were given specific duties. The duties of Dakua and Jhankar were to call people to assemble in the meetings for discussion of important matters concerning the welfare of the villagers. Nariha was another title held by a family whose duty it was to supply water and other amenities for the conduct of the meetings and to look after the food arrangement, etc. of the village guests. The Chaukidar was to protect the villagers from theft. All these people were given landed properties by the Gountia for their services to the villagers. Each and every important decision for the village was taken in the meetings attended by the family headmen and the decisions arrived at were being carried out by all the villagers without any resentment. There was no adalti system then, as existing to day separate from general body. All adalti cases, as is under stood at present were being put up before the general body for final decision.

The present system of Grama Panchayat was introduced in 1950-51 as per the rules laid down in the Orissa Grama Panchayat Act, 1948. Since then the Gountia system is no more in vogue. Now one or a group of villages taken together from a Grama Panchayat which are divided into various wards. Each ward is represented by its own elected member in the Panchayat meeting. The Sarpanch is directly voted by the electors. But one of the elected members is elected as Naib-Sarpanch. A Secretary may be appointed by the Sarpanch to maintain the records of the Grama Panchayat administration including income and expenditure. One or more sanitary staff are appointed to maintain the cleanliness in the Panchayat area.

At present the district has 315 Grama Panchayats,[1] including 136 in Bargarh and Padampur subdivisions, 92 in Sambalpur subdivision, 37 in Kuchinda subdivision, 33 in Deogarh subdivision and 17 in Rairakhol subdivision. Out of these, 27 Grama *Panchayats have their* own Adalti Panchayats for settling petty disputes both of civil and criminal nature thereby making the administration of justice in their respective areas simple, cheap and expeditious.

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[1]After formation of the Notified Area Council at Brajarajnagar in November, 1968 with three Panchayats of Sambalpur subdivision, the number of Panchayats in the district has been reduced to 312.

Income and Expenditure

The Grama Panchayats are authorised to impose and collect license fees for carrying offensive and dangerous trade. The Panchyats which provides lights, water and drainage facilities can also collect taxes for them. Besides, there are also remunerative schemes taken up by Panchayats such as income from ferry ghats, markets, cattle pounds, pisciculture and from orchards, etc. which increase the wealth of the Panchayat. The most important income of a Panchayat is the kendu leaf grant. Every Panchayat gets a minimum of Rs. 5,000 yearly to carry out Development schemes. The Panchayats also get other Government grants. The total income (including Government grants) of all the Panchayats of the district in 1967–68 was Rs. 6,31,645·06. Besides, Pay, D. A. and contingencies incurred for the staff, the expenditure of Panchayat include construction and repairing of various buildings like school, hospital, Bhagabatghar, market sheds, cattle pounds, roads, etc. and for providing lights They also spend on sanitation, welfare and on implementing various agricultural schemes. During 1967–68, the Grama Panchayats of the district had a total expenditure of Rs. 15,68,702·37.

Role played by Women and Harijans

There are female representatives in a number of the Grama Panchayats of the district, and in two of the Panchayats viz. Govindpur and Basantapur, women have been elected as Sarpanches. In each Panchayat Mahila Samitis have been formed and they have been allotted one acre of land each, the income of which is supposed to go for further improvment of the Samiti. They are also entrusted with education of village women, milk feeding of children, and teaching, etc. to specially selected women. They also organise at places variety shows and other remunerative schemes for improvement of their financial position.

There are Harijan members in many of the Panchayats. There is nothing specially allotted to them except taking all such members as members of the Standing Committee No. IV. These members generally put up before the Panchayats all difficulties experienced by Harijan people and seek measure of redressing them.

APPENDIX

Name of Panchayat Samiti		Headquarters
Sambalpur I	..	Dhankauda
Sambalpur II	..	Manesar
Sambalpur III	..	Jujomura
Rengali	..	Rengali
Jharsuguda	..	Jharsuguda
Lakhanpur	..	Lakhanpur
Laikera I	..	Laikera
Laikera II	..	Kirmira
Laikera III	..	Kolabira
Deogarh	..	Riamal
Barakot	..	Barakot
Naikul	..	Gogwa
Kuchinda	..	Kuchinda
Jamunkira	..	Jamunkira
Gobindpur	..	Gobindpur (Bamra)
Rairakhol	..	Rairakhol
Naktideul	..	Naktideul
Bargarh	..	Bargarh
Attabira	..	Attabira
Bheden	..	Bheden
Ambabhona	..	Bhukta
Bhatli	..	Bhatli
Sohela	..	Sohela
Bijepur	..	Bijepur
Gaisilat	..	Gaisilat
Padampur	..	Padampur
Paikmal I	..	Paikmal
Paikmal II	..	Jharbandh
Barpali	..	Barpali

CHAPTER XV

EDUCATION AND CULTURE

188. Historical Background

(a) Centres of Learning in Early Times

During medieval period, the land of Sambala was a seat of Tantric Buddhism. It is said to be the land where the Sambara Tantra was propounded by Pitopada, a famous Siddha. The Sambara Tantra was translated into Chinese by Jayadratha of Lanka (modern Sonepur of Balangir district). Acharya Pitopada who was a famous teacher in the Ratnagiri Mahavihara is said to have attained the Siddhi of invisibility at Sambala.[1] A great Buddhist Vihara (monastery) is said to have developed during the medieval period at Muchalinda (identified with Melchhamunda in Padampur Subdivision). This Muchalinda Vihara,[2] the ruins of which are still to be seen, was a famous centre of learning where Buddhist and Hindu philosophies were being taught.

(b) Old Poets

Gopal Telenga

Gopal Telenga was a soldier under Raja Ajaya Singh of Sambalpur. He translated the *Adhyatma Ramayana* into Oriya near about 1745 A. D. This Ramayana was very popular in western Orissa and Ganjam.

Bhecma Dheebara

We are still in dark about the exact time and bio-data of this poet. It is only conjectured that he belonged to the 17th Century. According to Tarini Charan Rath, he was a resident of Rairakhol. He made substantial contribution to Oriya literature by his literary works namely, *Kapatapasa* (କପଟପାଶା), *Bharata Sabitri* (ଭାରତ ସାବିତ୍ରୀ).

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[1] Indrabhuti, the king of Sambala (Sambalpur), and his sister Lakshmikara are counted among the traditional 84 Siddhas. Indrabhuti propounded the Vajrayana system of Buddhism and Lakshmikara who was his disciple laid the foundation of the Sahajayana system. In his famous book "Gyana Siddhi", Indrabhuti declared Jagannath as the primordial Buddha (Adi Buddha) and probably from that time onward Jagannath has been regarded as Buddha. Indrabhuti's son Padmasambhava went to Tibet at the invitation of King Srong-Sang-Gampo and with the help of his brother-in-law Santa Rakshita he succeeded in making a synthesis of the local faith and the Vajrayana system of religion, thus establishing Lamaism in Tibet. There Padmasambha is regarded as the second Buddha.

[2] Sambalpur University—First Convocation Souvenir (1968)—P. 6

Bheema Bhoi

He was born blind in village Kankanpada of Rairakhol, about 1855. He belonged to the Kondh tribe. Bereft of his parents in his childhood, he took to daily labour to earn his livelihood. Everyday, it is said, he used to listen to the Bhagabata read by somebody in his village and in course of this he memorised the entire Bhagabata. This testifies to the wonderful memory he was endowed with. He was a gifted poet. He could compose poems extempore. Though blind and deprived of education, he composed verses which reveal high philosophical thoughts and divine inspiration. Attracted by the Alekh religion in the prime of his youth, he went to Joranda (Dhenkanal)—the seat of this religion and joined the Order. He established a *math* (monastery) at Khaliapali in Sonepur, where he spent the last years of his life preaching the religion. The monastery still exists. He had a considerable following in the adjoining areas largely lying in Sambalpur district. He died at Khaliapali in 1895. Oriya literature has been enriched by his writings. He was the author of *Stutichintamani* (ସ୍ତୁତିଚିନ୍ତାମଣି), and *Bhajanamala* (ଭଜନମାଳା).

Gangadhar Mishra

Poet Gangadhar Mishra belonged to the 1st half of the 17th Century. He wrote the historical Kavya in Sanskrit called *Kosalananda Maha Kavyam*. He wrote it under the patronage of Baliar Singh, the then ruler of Sambalpur. This work supplies valuable information regarding the history of Patna (Balangir) and Sambalpur.

Gangadhar Meher

Born on the 9th August, 1862 (on the fullmoon day of Sravana) in a poor weaver family, Gangadhar Meher is counted today among the few great and immortal Oriya poets. He studied only upto the 5th class (Upper Primary) in the village school (Chatasali) and could not read further as he was not able to pay for his education The fact that he could buy books worth two rupees only during his entire school career clearly illustrates his utter poverty. But his little education could not prevent his zeal for study and he himself read various books in Oriya, Sanskrit and Bengali. He began his service in the Barpali Zamindari with a pay of Rs. 7/ per month. At the age of twenty-two he wrote his first book *Indumati* which earned him the fame of a poet. He was the author of *Tapaswini, Kichaka Badha, Kavita Kallola, Pranaya Ballari, Utkal Lakshmi, Ayodhya Drusya, Padmini* and *Arghya Thali*. These are works of high literary order. Oriya literature owes much to him for these works. He died on the 4th April, 1924.

Raja Sir Basudev Sudhal Dev, K.C.S.I. of Bamra (1851—1903)

He was the patron of the Oriya weekly *Sambalpur Hitaisini* edited by Pandit Nilamani Vidyaratna. He himself wrote in Sanskrit a book called *Alankar Bodhodaya* on Sanskrit rhetoric. It became a text-book in degree classes. His outstanding work was *Chitrotpala* in Oriya poetry giving a description of river Mahanadi. It is as good as a treatise on geography.

Raja Shri Sachidananda Tribhuvan Dev of Bamra (1873—1916)

He wrote a supplement to his father's *Alankar Bodhodaya*. He also wrote *Baidik Prakruti, Maya Sabari* and *Kadambari*. His book *Baidik Prakruti* was in blank verse, which was about the beginning of the Oriya prose literature.

Badakumar Balabhadra Dev

He was a son of Sir Sudhal Dev and wrote a number of poems following the style of Radhanath Ray.

Jalandhar Dev (Adopted son of Sir Sudhal Dev)

He was a regular contributor to the monthly journal *Utkal Sahitya* of Biswanath Kar. In addition to original poetry, he was a noted literary critic.

Literary talent also exhibited itself among the ladies of the Bamra Raj family. There are some excellent pieces written by ladies which had appeared at different places.

(c) Beginning of Western Education

Western education had its beginning in the district with the foundation of the Zilla School at Sambalpur in 1852. It was originally a Middle English School and it was converted into a High School in 1885. The number of students on the roll rose from 142 in 1886 to 214 in 1906-7 and to 484 in 1930. There were eight classes. In the four top classes the medium of instruction was English. Vernacular, Sanskrit and Persian were the other languages taught. Oriya continued to be the medium of instruction in the lower classes. English was taught as a second language in those classes.

In Bargarh Subdivision, western education began in 1908. The George High English School at Bargarh originally started as an upper Primary School in 1862 and was converted into a middle English School in 1908. The fourth, third and second classes were opened in 1915, 1916 and

1917 respectively. In 1919, the Patna University accorded sanction to the opening of the Matriculation class and the class started from the beginning of 1920. The average roll number of students rose from 140 in 1920 to 175 in 1930. Details of these schools have been given elsewhere in this Chapter. During 1930, besides these two High English Schools, there were six Middle English Schools in the district.

Some time elapsed when western education made its start in the ex-States of Bamra and Rairakhol. The state of education prevailing in 1907-08 in both those ex-States (now in Sambalpur district) is given below:—

Rairakhol

Education was very backward in the ex-State and endeavours were made to open more schools. The number of schools in 1907-08 was 5 and only 282 pupils were on the roll. There was also a Girls' school. There were signs of a growing interest among the better class of agriculturists in education and the number of schools increased to 13 during 1908-09. A Sub-Inspector of Schools was in charge of Education Department of the ex-State.[1]

Bamra

English Education was introduced in Bamra ex-State (now Deogarh and Kuchinda Subdivisions) in about 1892, when an English School was established by Sir Basudev Sudhal Dev, the then ruler of Bamra. This English School was converted into a High School later on. Many *Pathasalas*, Lower Primary and Upper Primary Schools were opened to feed this High School. There were altogether 33 schools besides some *Pathasalas*. All these schools were maintained by the ex-State administration. Primary education was free. Parents were liable to be penalised if they did not send their children to the school when they attained a certain age. Thus, Raja Basudeb Sudhal Dev had introduced the system of free and compulsory primary education. There was, at the headquarters, a school for girls and a special school for the education of Gandas During 1907-08, Rs. 7,162 was spent on education.

During 1941-42 the position was different The number of school in Bamra ex-State was 68 and of scholars 5,018. Primary education continued to be free and a nominal fee of four annas to ten annas continued to be charged in the two Middle English Schools. The total expenditure

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1. Based on Orissa Feudatory States—L. E. B. Cobden Ramsay.

on education was Rs.41,496. The table below shows the number of various types of schools and students in each during the said period (1941-42).

Types of Institution	No. of Institutions	No. of Students Boys	No. of Students Girls	Total
1. High School ..	1	209	2	211
2. Middle English Schools.	2	160	..	160
3. Middle Vernacular School (Girls).	1	..	3	3
4. Upper Primary School (Girls).	1	..	84	84
5. Upper Primary Schools (Boys).	21	1,577	358	1,935
6. Lower Primary School (Girls).	1	..	65	65
7. Lower Primary Schools (Boys).	40	2,041	464	2,505
8. Infant School ..	1	48	7	55
Total ..	68	4,035	983	5,018

The High School at Deogarh was the only High School in this ex-State. The teaching staff consisted of 12 members, of whom 4 were Graduates including 3 trained Graduates, one I. Sc., one I. A., five Matriculates, 2 of whom were trained, and one classical teacher called Sanskrit Pandit. The average roll number was 200 and the average daily attendance was 176. [1]

189. Literacy and educational standards

(a) Growth of Literacy

The condition of the district in respect of education, as obtaining in the early part of this century, has been described by L. S. S. O' Malley[2] in 1906-07 in these words—"Sambalpur is one of the most backward district in Bengal [3] in respect of education, largely it may be conjectured, because a considerable proportion of the population is composed of

[1] Administration Report of the Bamra State, 1941-42.

[2] Sambalpur District Gazetteer by L. S. S. O' Malley (1909)—P. 194.

[3] After being transferred from Central Provinces in 1905, Sambalpur remained a district in Bengal Province during 1905—12.

aboriginals or semi-aboriginals, who are poor, ignorant and indifferent to the benefits of education. How backward the district is may be realised from the statistics of literacy obtained at the census of 1901. The only test of literacy was ability to read and write, people of any age who could do this being entered as literates and those who could not as illiterate. The qualification seems a simple one, but even so not more than 3·3 per cent of the male population were able to fulfil it, while the total number of females able to read and write was only 400. These figures indicate a very low standard of education—indeed, they show that Sambalpur is the most backward district in Bengal—but on the other hand there can be no doubt that there has been a marked advance in recent years. Thirty years age, it is reported, a man able to read and write was hardly to be found in any village, and men had to be imported from Cuttack for the posts of school-masters and *patwaris* and for other appointments involving clerical work. There is now no lack of local men for such posts, and of late years an increasing number of students have taken University Degrees and gone farther afield to earn their livelihood in various professions."

Further evidence of progress is afforded by the statistics showing the number of pupils under instruction, from which it appears that in 1880-81 there were 3,266 children attending school and 7,145 in 1890-91. After the latter year, the number of Primary Schools gradually increased until in 1897 there were 153 schools attended by nearly 9,000 pupils. In 1898, however, the financial embarrassment of the District Council necessitated the closure of 82 schools and the number of pupils under instruction consequently fell to 4,244 in 1900-01. This measure created great discontent. Government was memorialised and eventually in 1901, it awarded a grant for opening 50 new schools. In the next year an additional grant was made for converting the combined "system-and-result aided" schools into District Council Schools, and the number of pupils under instruction consequently rose to 9,376 in 1903-04. On the transfer of the district with a diminished area to the province of Bengal in 1905 the number of schools and scholars was reduced by 16 and 1,358 respectively. In the few years which have since elapsed, there was considerable progress, the result being that there were more than thrice as many children at school as there were in 1880-81. The majority of the schools were maintained by the District Council, but there number was small. In most Zamindaris it was impossible for the inhabitants to send their children to school, however anxious they might be to do so.

The pace of progress was gradual. During 1906-07, there were 120 schools attended by 10,852 students, that is, there was one school for every 31 square miles and for every 22 villages and 1·7 per cent of the population received eduction. The schools included one High English

School, 6 Middle Vernacular Schools and 113 Primary Schools. Of these schools, 8 were managed by Government, 97 by the District Council, 4 by the Sambalpur Municipality and 11 (10 unaided and one aided) by private persons. There were no techincal schools and no special schools for backward races, with the exception of a small school maintained by the Baptist Mission at Sambalpur.

In 1931, 4·2 per cent of male population and 3 per cent of female population were literates. During this time, there were 457 schools in the district attended by 23,756 students, that is, there was one school for every 8 square miles and 3·01 per cent of the population received education. There were 2 High English Schools 6 Middle English Schools, 10 Middle Vernacular Schools and 436 Primary Schools, besides 3 Special Schools viz., 2 Elementary Training Schools and one Sanskrit Tol. Of these schools, 8 were managed and aided by Government, 196 by the District Council, 14 by the Sambalpur Municipality and 239 (232 aided or stipendiary and / unaided) by Private persons. There were no technical schools. There were 20 schools meant for depressed class students and 2 for aboriginals.

At the 1951 Census, we find that there were one College, 11 High Schools, 42 Middle Schools and 725 Primary Schools. The 1961 Census records 6 Colleges, 22 High Schools, one Higher Secondary School, 150 Middle Schools and 1,634 Primary Schools.

In the census of 1961, we get the following on literacy[1]—"The total number of literates returned for the district in the Census of 1961 is 345,972; of whom 281,153 are males and 64,819 are females. The percentage of literacy comes to 22·9 comprising 18·6 males and 4·3 females against the State averages of 17·4 per cent and 4·3 per cent respectively. The percentage of literacy in the district has gone up from 16·3 in 1951 to 22·9 in 1961. Taking the male population alone, the percentage of literates is 37·2 . Similarly among the females, the percentage is 8·6. The corresponding figures of 1951 for males and females are 28·4 and 4·3 respectivlely. Of the total literates, 273,389 do not have any educational level, 60,811 have read up to primary or junior basic standard and the remaining are either Matriculates or have higher qualification.

"In as much as persons of the age, 4 years or less, have no chance of acquiring literacy, they may be excluded from the total population for the purpose of calculating the percentage of literacy

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1. District Census Hand Book, Sambalpur (1961)—pp. 28-30

for the district which, in that case, turns out to be slightly higher. The following table gives comparative data worked out on this basis for the two censuses of 1961 and 1951.

Census		Percentage of literacy	
	Persons	Male	Female
1961 ..	26·3	21·4	4·9
1951 ...	18·2	15·8	2·4

"Thus an improvement is noticed in 1961 to the extent of 8·1 per cent in the total population above the age-group of 0-4 years Since children in the age-group of 0-4 years do not generaly attend any school, it may be more rational to assume the percentage of literacy for the district to be 26·3 comprising 21·4 males and 4·9 females."

"The level of literacy is slightly above the average level for the State, as a whole, which contains many areas much more backward than Sambalpur. Percentage of literacy in the urban and rural areas in the district separately are 43·0 and 21·3 respectively against the State averages of 44·2 and 20·1.

"The table below gives the number of literates and the percentage of literacy in different subdivisions of district".

Subdivision	No. of literates	Percentage of literacy
1. Sambalpur ..	135,585	26·6
2. Bargarh (including Padampur).	147,244	21·3
3. Deogarh ..	26,789	22·3
4. Kuchinda ..	24,333	18·3
5. Rairakhol ..	12.021	22·9

"The rate of literacy is the lowest in the Kuchinda subdivision and the highest in the Sambalpur subdivision. Among the police stations, the highest standard of literacy is recorded in Hirakud P.-S. (40·9 per cent) and the lowest, in Paikmal P.-S. (13·3 per cent)".

(b) Number of literates

The number of literate persons in the district at the census of 1951 was 211,918 consisting of 183,975 males and 27,943 females. This number rose to 345,972 (281,153 males and 64,819 females) at the 1961 Census. The following table shows the division of literates by educational standards as compiled from the 1961 Census.

Educational Standards		Total	Male	Female
1. Literates (without educational standard).		273,389	218,846	54,543
2. Literates (with educational standards.)		72,583	62,307	10,276
(A) Primary or Junior Basic	..	60,811	51,307	9,504
(B) Matriculation or Higher Secondary.		10,200	9,528	672
(C) Technical Diploma (not equal to Degree).		118	114	4
(D) Non-Technical Diploma (not equal to degree).		24	23	1
(E) University Degree or Post-Graduate Degree other than technical Degree.		1,180	1,107	73
(F) Technical Degree (Equal to Degree or P. G. Degree)—				
Engineering	..	112	112	..
Medicine	..	58	52	6
Agriculture	..	6	6	..
Veterinary	..	4	4	..
Technology	..	10	10	.
Teaching	..	58	42	16
Others	..	2	2	..
3. Total Literates	..	345,972	281,153	64,819

(C) Spread of Education among Women

If we take a backward view of about 70 years, we find the picture, so far as it relates to female education, as follows. In 1900-01 only 471 girls were attending school, but the number rose subsequently in 1906 to 1332, of whom 899 read in boys' schools and 433 in girls' schools. There were only six Upper Primary Girls' Schools situtated at Sambalpur, Rampella, Attabira, Barpali, Bargarh and Padampur, and were all managed by Government. These Schools were formerly District Council Schools, but were transferred to the control of Government in 1903. So opportunities of education available to females during this time were only up to Upper Primary standard. Then during the next two decades, there was a steady advance in all classes of schools. Three of the schools had become Middle Vernacular Schools, and were managed by Government. They were situated at Sambalpur, Bargarh, and Rampella. Besides, there were 5 Upper Primary Girls' Schools and 15 Lower Primary Girls' Schools.

The position in 1931 is noted as follows by the author Shri Nilamani Senapati, I. C. S., who, as Deputy Commissioner of Sambalpur, was the President of the Managing Committee of the Zilla School at Sambalpur:

"A proposal came for admission of girls in the High School classes. I was in favour. All the non-official members were against. They apprehended, if girls were admitted boys would be withdrawn. I ordered admission of girls and waited to see the result. No girl came forward for admission. No boy withdrew. Virtually, the door to High School education for girls remained closed until a decade later when Lady Lewis Girls School was statrted."

The progress made in the subsequent years was not appreciable. Even after a lapse of nearly 30 years (i. e., in 1961), the district could have only 1 Girls' High School, 10 Girls' Middle Schools and 26 Girls' Primary Schools. During 1965-66, the picture was somewhat different. There were 8 Girls' High Schools, 21 Girls' Middle Schools and 29 Girls' Primary Schools. The total number of girls attending all types of schools was 58,058 in 1965-66, as against 1,529 in 1958-59. A Women's College has also been established at Sambalpur in 1959, which provides instruction up to degree standard in Arts.

(D) Spread of Education among Backward classes and Tribes :

L. S. S. O' Malley[1] said in 1906-07—"Altogether 1,119 children belonging to backward races or aboriginal tribes are under instruction, but great difficulty is experienced in persuading the forest tribes to send their children to school".

[1] Sambalpur District Gazetteer (1909) by L. S. S. O' Malley

The following account by F. C. King[1] gives the position obtaining in 1930—"There are 20 Primary Schools, specially meant for depressed class pupils, attended by 714 pupils. The total number of children of the class, now attending school is 1,981. There are 2 Primary Schools specially meant for aboriginal tribes, attended by 95 pupils, while the total number of such pupils in all classes of schools is 1,990. These figures show an adavance in the education of these classes, as there were only 1,119 aboriginal children at school in 1906-07".

In Manesar (Maneswar) Lower Primary School in 1930, the author Shri Nilamani Senapati, I. C. S., Deputy Commissioner of Sambalpur, found a Ganda boy sitting in the open outside a room where a class was going on. The teacher feared that if the untouchable boy sat in the room, the other boys would be withdrawn from the school. The Deputy Commissioner took the boy by hand and seated him in the class. He ordered that even if all the other boys were withdrawn, the school would go on with only one Ganda boy. Actually nothing happened. The school went on as usual. It is not that untouchability was abolished. But no parent dare to defy the Deputy Commissioner's decision[2].

The District had its own cause of educational backwardness. As stated earlier, a considerable proportion of the population is composed of aboriginals or semi-aboriginals who are poor, ignorant and indifferent to the benefits of education. It is very difficult to persuade the tribes to send their children to school. The people of backward classes and tribes think it more beneficial to put their children to work than to send them to school. Their children actually help them to add to their paltry income which is hardly sufficient to feed them daily. So the potent cause which prevents them from taking to education is their economic backwardness. Unless financial assistance is available from some quarters, they cannot afford to defray the requisite expenses of education. So, the necessity arose to establish special types of school where these students can get every help from Government. After independence, this question gathered momentum. Special types of schools, called Ashram Schools and Sevasrams, were opened in areas where the tribes preponderated. The Ashram Schools are residential schools for the tribal students and these are designed to impart general education together with training in crafts like agriculture, weaving, carpentry, bee-keeping, etc. The entire cost for their boarding, lodging, dresses and for reading materials are borne by State Government. There are eight Ashram

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[1]Sambalpur District Gazetteer (1932) by F. C. King

[2]The Paurusha (Oriya monthly) October 1968. P. 22

Schools including one Kanyashram (Girls' Middle School). Three of these schools, that is, at Bhojpur, Kansar and Bijayapali, have already been upgraded to High Schools. The following statement gives the list of these Ashram Schools with a few details in respect of each (as in 1968-69).

Name of Ashram School		Year of establishment	No. of students	No. of teachers
1. Banjari	..	1950–51	130	10
2. Bhojpur *	..	1950–51	196	17
3. Charadapali	..	1955–56	75	9
4. Narsinghnath	..	1956–57	69	9
5. Padampur Kanyashram	..	1958–59	109	9
6. Kansar **	..	1960–61	134	14
7. Bijayapali*	..	1960–61	157	17
8. Arda	..	1961–62	63	8
Total	..		933	93

The Sevashrams are day schools of Lower Primary standard in which admission is open to students belonging to scheduled tribes, scheduled castes and other backward classes. These students also receive every kind of help from Government There were, during 1968-69, 165 Sevashrams with 8,968 students and 397 teachers.

The subdivisionwise break-up of Sevashrams is as follows:—

Name of Subdivision		No. of Sevashrams	No. of students	No. of teachers (Sevaks)
1. Bargarh (including Padampur)		84	2,382	204
2. Deogarh	..	5	161	10
3. Kuchinda	..	9	316	16
4. Rairakhol	..	10	530	18
5. Sambalpur	..	57	5,579	149
Total	..	165	8,968	397

*Upgraded to High School status from 1965–66

** Upgraded to High School status from 1966-67

Government is also giving stipends and grants to the students belonging to the scheduled castes and tribes who read in other schools

190. General Education : Schools and Colleges

(A) Primary and Basic Schools

During 1906-07, altogether there were 92 Upper Primary Schools and 15 Lower Primary Schools for boys. The number of scholars was 9,178, as against 6,624 attending 64 Upper Primary and 50 Lower Primary Schools in 1901-02. There were also six Upper Primary Schools for girls attended by 433 scholars. The curriculum in the Primary schools was somewhat different from that in other districts of Bengal. Besides reading, writing and arithmetic, the course of instruction comprised simple lessons in the structure and growth of plants, the methods of agriculture, the preparation of the *Patwari's* village records and registers, the incidents of different land-tenures, the local law of the landlord and tenant and the system of accounts kept by the village money-lenders. The course of study for girls was nearly the same as for boys, except that needle-work was taught as a compulsory subject and the lessons in agriculture and land-tenures were omitted.

During 1929-30, there were 54 Upper Primary and 362 Lower Primary Schools for boys attended by 20,746 scholars. There were also 5 Upper Primary and 15 Lower Primary Schools for girls. The total number of girl scholars attending Primary classes (of boys' and girls' schools) was 4,302.

During 1951 Census, there were 725 Primary Schools and this number rose to 1,634 in 1961. During 1965-66, the number of schools further increased to 1,976 (1,947 for boys and 29 for girls) attended by 138,189 scholars (90,081 boys and 48,108 girls). In 1968, there were 2,046 Primary Schools including 16 for girls. Besides these Primary Schools, there were also 2 Senior Basic Schools and 36 Junior Basic Schools attended by 385 and 3,468 students respectively.

(B) Secondary Schools

Earlier, the only High School maintained by Government was the Zilla School (now called Chandra Sekhar Zilla School). The School was founded at Sambalpur in 1852*. It was originally a Middle English School, but was converted into a High English School in 1885. Before shifting in 1927 to the commodious double-storied building (now occupied by G. M. College), it was situated in a small

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*This date (i. e., 1852) is stated in Sambalpur District Gazetteer (1909) by L. S. S. O' Malley. But it is 1858 in Sambalpur District Gazetteer (1932) by F. C. King. The headmaster of the School reported that it was established in 1852 and it grew into a Zilla School in 1864.

building in the heart of the town. In 1956, it shifted to its present building at the foot of the Circuit House hill. The number of students rose from 142 in 1886 to 214 in 1906-07 and to 484 on the 31st March 1930. In 1930, there were 25 teachers on the staff. Eight of them were graduates. All the teachers, excepting three, were trained. There were eight classes, all of which were duplicated. In the four top classes, the medium of instruction was English. Vernacular, Sanskrit and Persian were the other languages taught. Oriya was the medium of instruction in the last four classes. English was taught as a second language in those classes. There was provision in the school for teaching of the four principal vernacular languages, namely, Hindi, Oriya, Bengali and Urdu. The teaching of Physics and Chemistry was also provided by this time. The attached hostel had accommodation for 50 boarders, as against 20 in 1906-07. During 1968-69, the number of students swelled to 822 (all boys) and of teachers to 32. There are six classes, i. e., from VI to XI. Classes VI and VII have been divided into 2 sections, classes VIII and IX into 4 sections, and classes X and XI into 3 sections.

The other high school, called the George High English School, Bargarh, originally started as an Upper Primary School in 1862, and was converted into a Middle Vernacular School in 1868, and further converted into a Middle English School in 1908. The School was maintained by private funds and aided by Government. The fourth, third and second classes were opened in 1915, 1916 and 1917 respectively. The Patna University accorded sanction to the opening of the Matriculation class on the 22nd November, 1919 and the class was started from the beginning of 1920. The average number of students rose from 140 in 1920 to 175 in 1930. The high school building was constructed with the help of a contribution of Rs. 23,000 from Government, Rs. 20,900 received from sale-proceeds of the old Middle Vernacular school building, and a public donation of Rs. 8,994-8-7. Two hostels were attached to it, with accommodation for 101 boarders. Up to 1930, therefore, these two were the only High Schools in the district. During 1968, there were 746 students and 26 teachers in this school. There were 16 classes-Classes VI and XI were duplicated, and classes VII, VIII, IX, X were triplicated.

On the Middle Schools during 1906-07, the Sambalpur District Gazetteer (1909) by L. S. S. O' Malley states—"There is no Middle English School , but six Middle Vernacular Schools have been established, which are attended by 1.027 pupils, as against 104 in 1901-02. One of these schools, the Patnaikpara School at Sambalpur is maintained by the Municipality, and five, situated at Bargarh (converted into M. E. School in 1908), Remenda, Rampela, Barpali and

Tamparasara, are maintained by the District Council. Each of the latter five schools has a boarding house attached to it. They are all first-grade Middle Vernacular Schools, i. e., are merely Primary schools with two extra classes, thus continuing the course of primary education for two years longer". The inspecting agency, during this period, consisted of a Deputy Inspector of Schools and two Sub-Inspectors. In 1930, there were 6 Middle English Schools and 10 Middle Vernacular Schools. These were attended by 568 and 526 pupils respectively. Of the Middle Vernacular Schools, 3 were for girls maintained by Government and attended by 358 pupils, and the remaining schools were maintained by the District Council. Five of the Middle English Schools, which were aided by Government, were situated in the mufassal, while the Patnaikpara Middle English School, which was managed by the Sambalpur Municipality, was situated at Sambalpur. Except the Patnaikpara Middle English School all the middle schools were provided with hostels.. The inspecting agency consisted of a District Inspector of Schools and 4 Sub-Inspectors.

The above account portrays the picture, so far as it relates to to secondary education, up to 1930.

During the next two decades, progress in secondary education was slow. But the advancement made during 1951-60 was noticeable. The Census of 1961 records 23 High Schools (including 1 Higher Secondary School) and 150 Middle Schools as against only 11 High Schools and 42 Middle Schools in 1951. The number rose apace during the next five years. In 1965-66 there were 74 High Schools and 273 Middle Schools attended by 13,330 and 14,974 scholars respectively. The number of these schools further increased within a couple of years and in 1968 there were 97 high schools (87 for boys and 10 for girls) and 300 middle schools (285 for boys and 15 for girls). See Appendix II.

There was only one Higher Secondary School in the district and that was a Larambha. It was previously a High School established by Late Brajamohan Panda in 1938. Only for twelve years since its beginning, it was a residential school. In 1960, it was upgraded to the status of a Higher Secondary School. It held this status only up to 1967, after which it was reconverted to a High School.

As to the inspecting agency, the district so long was having two District Inspectors of Schools each in charge of the Bargarh and Sambalpur educational districts. But with effect from the 20th March 1969, the district has been reorganised into 4 educational districts, namely, Bargarh, Deogarh, Padampur and Sambalpur; and

4 District Inspectors of Schools posted to each of such districts with headquarters at the same places. The jurisdictions of those educational districts are as below:—[1]

Name of educational District and headquarters	Names of constituent Blocks, Municipalities N. A. Cs., etc.
1	2
1. Bargarh ..	1. Ambabhona, 2. Attabira, 3. Bargarh 4. Barpali, 5. Bhatli, 6. Bheden, 7. Sohela
2. Deogarh ..	1. Barakot, 2. Deogarh, 3. Gobindpur, 4. Jamankira, 5. Kuchinda, 6. Naikul, 7. Naktideul, 8. Rairakhol.
3. Padampur ..	1. Bijepur., 2. Gaisilat, 3. Padampur 4. Paikmal-I, 5. Paikmal-II.
4. Sambalpur ..	1. Jharsuguda, 2. Laikera-I, 3. Laikera-II, 4. Laikera-III, 5. Lakhanpur, 6. Rengali 7. Sambalpur-I, 8. Sambalpur-II, 9. Sambalpur-III.

Kendriya Vidyalaya (Central School), Sambalpur :

The school has been opened at Sambalpur in 1965 under the auspices and management of the Kendriya Vidyalaya Sangathan, Ministry of Education, Government of India. It was set up to provide educational facilities for children of the Defence personnel, Central Government employees liable to transfer, and floating population. The school is affiliated to the Central Board of Secondary Education, New Delhi. Standards I to XI have been opened. The medium of instruction is Hindi/English. There were (as on 1-8-69) 490 students (374 boys and 116 girls). Teachers numbered 29.

St. Joseph's Convent, Sambalpur

St. Joseph's Convent was opened on the 11th of February, 1963 at Sambalpur. The school is run by the Congregation of the Sisters of St. Joseph. There is also a governing body. On roll, there are

1. Government of Orissa (Education Department) Resolution No. 5911—XE/R.6/69-E., dated 12-3-1969.

(in 1969) 436 students which include 204 boys and 232 girls. There are 16 teachers. The school has classes upto standard VIII. The medium of instruction is English. The subjects taught are English, Mathematics, History, Geography, General Science, Moral Science, Hindi (from Std. II), Oriya (from Std. IV), Art, Craft, and Physical Training. There is no hostel for students

(c) Colleges

Upto 1943, there was no College in the district. In July 1944 the Gangadhar Meher College, which is the first and foremost College of the district, was established at Sambalpur. There was no other College in the district till 1956, when the Engineering College was established at Burla. Two more colleges, namely, Medical College at Burla and Women's College at Sambalpur, came into being in 1959. The remaining eight colleges sprang into existence during the period 1960—65. Statement appeneded at the end of this chapter would give the trend of progress with a few details (Appendix I). Altogether there are now 13 colleges—of which 9 are general education colleges and four are technical and/or professional colleges. The latter four colleges are, one each in law, medical science, engineering and teachers' training. All these colleges are affiliated to Sambalpur University. Details of each of the General Education colleges are given below :

(*i*) Anchal College, Padmapur

The college started in 1965. Initially, the college provided education in the subjects of Arts only. In 1968, Pre-University class in Science was opened. The subjects taught are Mathematics, History, Logic, Political Science, Economics, Oriya, English, General studies, Physics, Chemistry, and Biology. In all, there were (as during 1969) 202 students (including 2 females) and 16 teachers. There is a hostel. The college is now providing education upto Bachelor's Degree.

(*ii*) Deogarh College

The college was established at Deogarh in 1963. It provides education upto Degree Standard in Arts. Two classes in Science have also been opened, that is, Pre-University class in 1967 and 1st Year (Science) class in 1968. Subjects offered for instruction are English, Oriya, General studies, Economics, History, Political Science, Physics, Chemistry, and Biology. During 1969, there were 115 students (including 6 girls) and 16 teachers. There is a hostel.

(*iii*) Gangadhar Meher College, Sambalpur

Established in 1944 and named after the great Oriya poet Gangadhar Meher, it is the oldest college of the district and one of the first grade colleges of Orissa.

The total number of students in the college during 1969 was 1,929 which included 269 female students. There were 87 teachers.

It provides instruction in Arts, Science and Commerce, and Post-graduate classes in all these three faculties have been opened.

The subjects in which Post-graduate classes have been opened are English, Economics, History, Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, and Commerce. Honours Classes have been opened in the following subjects—English, Economics, History, Philosophy, Mathematics, Political Science, Oriya, Chemistry, Botany, Zoology and Commerce.

There are three hostels for boys having a total number of 410 boarders and one hostel for girls having 17 boarders.

(iv) Gangadhar Meher Evening College, Sambalpur

The Evening classes, meant exclusively for employees who work during the day, was started by Utkal University in 1963 and taken over by the State Government in 1967. The total number of students in 1969 was 638 (including 2 females) and there were 19 teachers. The college imparts education up to Bachelor's degree standard in Arts subjects only. The following subjects are offered for teaching—English, General Studies, Oriya, Economics, Philosophy, Logic, Sanskrit, Political Science, History and Mathematics. There is no hostel.

(v) Government Women's College, Sambalpur

This is the only women's college in the district. The college was started by private enterprise in July 1959 with only 19 students. The college is located in Surendra Sai Nagar in Sambalpur town. It has its own building. During 1969, there were 185 students and 20 teachers. Classes have been opened in Arts up to Degree standard and in science up to 1st year. The college provides instruction in English, Oriya, History, Logic, Sanskrit, Economics, Philosophy, Home Science, Anthropology, Physics, Chemistry, Botany, Zoology and Mathematics. There is also an attached hostel where 65 students reside.

(vi) Kuchinda College

The college came into being in 1964 at Kuchinda. The college imparts instruction up to Degree standard in Arts subjects only, namely, English, Oriya, History, Economics, Political Science and Philosophy. There were, during 1969, 181 students (including 7 females) and 12 teachers. There is a hostel attached to the college having 50 boarders. Donations from Grama Panchayats and Government grant-in-aid are the main financial resources. A proposal is there to introduce science from the academic year 1969-70.

(*vii*) **Larambha College**

The college owes its existence to the late Braja Mohan Panda who was a pioneer of modern education in the district. In 1964, it was founded at Larambha. From 1967, it has been getting aid from the State Government and University Grants Commission. During 1969, there were 96 students (including 1 girl) and 8 teachers. There is provision for teaching of English, Oriya, General Studies, Physics, Chemistry, Zoology, Botany and Mathematics. Two hostels are there, one for boys and the other for girls, for accommodation of 70 boys and 5 girls.

(*viii*) **Laxminarayan College, Jharsuguda**

The college started in 1969 at Jharsuguda under private management with 46 students and 5 teachers.

(*ix*) **Panchayat College, Bargarh**

The inception of the college was due to the contribution of Rs. 5,51,037 received from 58 Grama Panchayats of Bargarh subdivision. The college started at Bargarh in 1960 with only 94 students and 9 teachers. At the out-set it opened only Pre-University classes in Arts and Science and now it is a full-fledged Degree College preparing students for the Three Year Degree examinations in Arts, Science, and Commerce. The college is managed by a private body. During 1969, there were 612 students (including 38 girls) and 42 teachers.

The number of boarders in the college hostel is 117. The following subjects are taught:

Economics, History, Oriya, Sanskrit, Political Science, Philosophy, Hindi, Physics, Chemistry, Botany, Zoology, and Mathematics.

The Commerce Degree course includes Advanced Accounting, Statistics, Money and Banking, Public Economics, Commercial Law, Auditing, Business Organisation and Administration, Salesmanship, Commercial correspondence, Book Keeping, and Economic Theory.

The College has opened Honours classes in History, Economics, English, Mathematics, Oriya, Income-Tax Law and Accounts, Secretarial Practice, and Personnel Management.

191. Professional and Technical Schools and Colleges

(*a*) **Schools**

(*i*) *Jharsuguda Engineering School*—The school started at Jharsuguda in 1955 with 60 seats (30 for Electrical and 30 for Mechanical). Now the institution imparts education in Civil, Electrical and Mechanical engineering and awards Diploma. The total number of students during 1967-68 was 258, the class-wise break-up being; 1st year—56, 2nd year (Civil)—2, 2nd year (Elec. & Mech.)—89, 3rd year (Civil)—4, 3rd year (Mech.)—62 and 3rd year (Electrical)—45. The teaching staff (as in

1967-68) consists of 50 members. There were 160 boarders in the attached hostel. In 1956, it was handed over to a private body for its management. In 1959, the State Government in the Industries Department again took over management.

(*ii*) *Industrial Training Institute, Hirakud*—The institute started at Hirakud in 1956 with a view to imparting technical training in various trades. In 1953, the Tata Iron & Steel Co. made a donation of Rs. 3 lakhs to Government of Orissa for establishment of a Polytechnic at Hirakud. The amount has been utilised in constructing the hostel building for the institute. The total number of students during 1968-69 was 184, that is, Draftsman—9, Wireman—8, Motor Mechanic—31, Moulder—3, Electrician—22, Mechanist—11, L. C. E. Mech.—17, Short-hand--30, Fitter—18, Turner—15, and Welder—20. The teaching staff numbered 32. The hostel has a capacity for 100 boarders. At present there are 110 boarders there. After successful completion of courses, the trainees are awarded National Trade Certificates by the Director-General of Employment and Training, Government of India. The institute is affiliated to National Council of Technical Training through the State Courcil of Techincal Training.

(iii) Teachers' Training Schools—Prior to 1908, there were no training schools in the district, but training classes for pubpil teachers has been attached to the five middle vernacular schools located at Bargarh, Remenda, Rampella, Baipali and Tamparasara These schoo's were managed by the District Council. In connection with these training classes, 20 pupil teachers scholarships of Rs. 5 a month each and 20 District Council Scholarships of Rs. 3 a month each were awarded annually. In 1908 two Elementary Training S hools with attached hostels were established at Bargarh and Rampella. They worked on Middle Vernaoular basis. There were 34 students in these schools in 1930.

At preseut (1968-69), there are three Secondary Training Schools in the district located at Sambalpur, Bargarh and Deogarh and three Elementary Training Schools located at Panchapara (Spripura). Sohela and Padampur. There were 260 students (180 males and 80 females) and 35 teachers in all these schools.

The Secondary Training School for Women, Sambalpur was established in 1962-63 and there were 30 students (women) and 7 teachers during 1968-69.

The Secondary Training Schools were started at Deogarh and Bargarh in 1966-67 and 1968-69 respectively. There are 40 students and 7 teachers in each of the schools.

teachers (88 males and 23 females). The college imparts teaching in Anatomy, Physiology, Pharmacology, Forensic Medicine, Toxicology, Pathology, Medicine, Surgery, Obstetrics and Gynaecology, Opthalmology, E. N. T., Social and Preventive Medicine, Radiology, and Anaesthesiology. Excepting Forensic Medicine, E. N. T., Social and Preventive Medicine and Radiology, Post-graduate classes have been opened in all other subjects. All the students reside in hostels. The college has been recognised by the Indian Medical Association.

192. Sambalpur University

The Sambalpur University, now a teaching-*cum*-affiliating University, came into being at Sambalpur on the 1st January 1968 and was formally inaugurated by the President of India on the 4th January 1968 It holds jurisdiction over all colleges located in Sambalpur, Sundargarh, Balangir and Kalahandi districts and the Athamallik subdivision of Dhenkanal district and the Baudh subdivision of Baudh-Khondmals district. The University has seven faculties viz., Arts., Science Commerce, Engineering, Medicine, Law, and Education. Excepting the Faculties of Law, and Education, there is provision for post-graduate teaching in the remaining five Faculties. With its inception the University inherited 22 colleges consisting of two Engineering Colleges, one medical college, one Teachers Training College, one Law College, and 17 colleges in Arts, Science and Commerce. Subsequently in 1969, one more college set up at Jharsuguda was affiliated to this University. The University has one constituent college—the University College of Engineering at Burla. From July 1969, it took over the management of Lajpat Rai Law College. The other colleges are either managed by the State Government or Trusts or Private Bodies. Excepting the only constituent college, the total number of affiliated colleges now is 24. A list of affiliated college is given at the end of this chapter (Appendix I). The total number of students of the University is little over 8,000. From 1968, the university opened Post-graduate teaching classes in two subjects namely, Political Science and Oriya; and from 1969, in History, Mathematics, English, Chemistry, Physics, and Biological Sciences.

193. Schools for the cultivation of fine Arts, Music, Dancing, Painting, etc

Sambalpur Music Association was established in 1960 at Kunjelpara in Sambalpur town. The institution provides instruction in Hindusthani Music, Oddisi Music and Dance, and Sambalpuri Folk Music. During 1963 there were 40 students—25 males and 15 females. It has been running with financial hardship. The only source of income was the grant from Orissa Sangeet Natak Akademi and the fees received from

students. It could not afford to appoint qualified instructors and some of the local talents were lending their services without taking any remuneration, while a few others were remunerated.

Another music institution called Kala Parishad also exits at Sambalpur

19¶. Oriental Schools

Sanskrit Tols

At present, there are two Sanskrit Tols in the district, namely Gopaljiu Tol at Sambalpur and Lalajee Gopaljee Tol at Jurkel (Padampur P.-S.).

The Gopaljiu Tol, established in 1912, prepares students for Prathama and Madhyama Sanskrit Examinations. There are 15 students and 4 teachers in the Tol. The Government grant-in-aid received during 1967–68 was Rs. 5,909.

The Lalajee Gopaljee Tol, established in 1948, prepares students only for the Prathama Sanskrit examination. There are 8 students and 2 teachers. The Tol received Rs. 3,949 as Govemenet grant–in–aid during 1967–68.

195. Cultural and literary Societies

(a) Koshal Sahitya Samaj, Sambalpur

The institution came into being on the 1st January 1967 at Sambalpur. It has started with some cultural and literary objectives. This is said to be the premier literary organisation of the district. It is credited with publishing some books and organising literary sympcsia. It played host to the 4th *Oriya Yu.a Lekhaka Sammilani* (All Orissa Young Writers Conference) held at Sambalpur from 10—12th February 1968, and brought out a souvenir on this occasion. The birth centenary of the Assamese poet Laxminath Bejbarua, who lived at Sambalpur for a long period, was also celebrated by this institution on 20th October 1968. Gangadhar Meher's *Tapaswini* has been translated into English under its auspices and submitted to Orissa Sahitya Akademi. Koshal Sahitya Samaj has been recognised as a learned society and the Chancellor of Sambalpur University nominates one of its members to represent it in the Senate. The present membership is 50

(b) Sahitya Kala Parishad, Brajarajnagar

The Association has been functioning for the last 10 years. But from 1964, it has been functioning under a constitution approved by its general body. Broadly, it stands for the advancement of Oriya art, literature and culture. It organises activities like literary seminars on the birth anniversaries of eminent Oriya poets and writers, drama, dance and music programmes, essay and debate competitions among school students of the district. There are now (1969) 65 membes

The Parishad also maintains a library. The Association owns the following assets : Library books worth Rs. 1,000, fixed deposit of Rs. 2,000 and current deposit of about Rs. 700.

It also takes up social work in times of need. During the cyclone of 1967 in the eastern part of the State, the members of the association collected from door to door a total amount of Rs. 2,000 which was sent to the Chief Minister's Relief Fund. Again during the cyclone of 1968 in the Puri and Ganjam districts, it could organise dance and music programmes and could send Rs. 500 to the Chief Minister's Relief Fund.

(c) Khageswar Sahitya Samiti, Palsada

The institution was established in 1958 at Palsada (under Paikmal P. S.). It is a literary association. The Samiti holds its annual literary conferences at different places, mostly in the neighbourhood. It is reported, it had its annual conferences at Palsada (1958, 1960 & 1965), at Bijepur (1969), at Jharmunda (1960), at Sargibahal (1962), at Paikmal (1966) and at Padampur (1967). The Samiti also has some literary publications to its credit. There were 58 members in 1969 in the organisation. The subscriptions collected from members and sale-proceeds from publications are its only financial sources.

(d) Meher Association, Sambalpur

Named after the great Oriya poet Gangadhar Meher, the Association started in 1965 at Sambalpur and remained inactive till it revived on the 9th July 1967. Initially, it started with the aim of promoting physical culture. But now it stands for five broad objectves, namely, freedom, peace, progress, equality, and education. The Association has a sports council for conducting games, sports, exercises and other physical activities. It also has a section exclusively for organising cultural activities from time to time.

(e) Pragati Sangh, Sambalpur

The organisation came into being in 1959. Its activities chiefly centre round organising debates, seminars, essay competitions, dance, drama and music during its annual day. From 1968, a committee has been formed by this organisation to select each year the best dramatist, athlete, social worker, artist, actor, writer and musician for being honoured on the annual day.

(f) Swarajya Sahitya Samaroha, Dhanupali (Sambalpur)

The organisation came into existence in 1965. It is reported, it publishes books of literary worth and extends financial assistance to, as also participates in, various literary conferences.

(g) Railway Oriya Cultural Association, Jharsuguda

Formed in 1964, this is a socio-cultural organisation. It has 30 members. It derives its finance from members' subscription and public donations.

(h) Agragami Jubak Sangha, Bargarh

It came into existence at Bargarh in 1958. It stands for cultural and literary activities. It is said, the idea of starting a college at Bargarh was mooted by the members of this organisation. It runs a library, and organises dramatic performances and cultural meetings.

196. Cultural and Literary Periodicals

The Sambalpur Hitaisini (ସମ୍ବଲପୁର ହିତୈଷିଣୀ) , a weekly Oriya newspaper, started publication on 30th May 1889 * from the Sudhala Press at Deogarh under the patronage of Raja Sir Basudev Sudhal Dev of Bamra. Its first editor was Pandit Nilamani Vidyaratna. After having a life of about 34 years, it ceased publication on 3rd March 1923. Although substantially a newspaper, its contribution to the cause of Oriya language and literature was significant. It could establish itself as a leading literary paper of its time. Both the press and the paper were self-sufficient. The leading contributors to the paper were Radhanath Rai, Madhusudan Rao, Ramnarain Rai, Biswanath Kar, Fakir Mohan Senapati, Bholanath Samantarai, Damodar Kabiratna, Govinda Chandra Mohapatra Sharma, Ramakrishna Sahu, Chintamoni Misra Shashtri, Madhusudan Misra Tarkavachaspati, Yuvaraj Sachidananda Tribhuban Dev, Raj Kumar Balabhadra Dev, Jalandar Dev, Pandit Ratnakar Sharma, Dinabandhu Pradhan, Karunakar Sahu and Rasananda Pradhan.

With the installation of the Fraser Press at Sambalpur in 1905, publication of periodicals only became possible and brisk literary activities followed. This press is said to be the first printing press of the then district.

The *Utkal Sevak* (ଉତ୍କଳସେବକ), the first newspaper of the then district, edited by late Swapneswar Das was on circulation during 1914. It was an Oriya weekly newspaper and was being printed in the Fraser

* Dr. Natabara Samantarai gives this date in his book
"ଆଧୁନିକ ଓଡ଼ିଆ ସାହିତ୍ୟର ଇତିହାସ"

But at p. 114 of "Sir Basudev Jibani" (a biography in Bengali written by Chandicharan Bondopadhyaya) we find that in 1886 Raja Basudev Sudhal Dev established at Deogarh a printing press called "Jagannathballav Press" and in 1887 started publication of *Sambalpur Hitaisini*. Again Ganeswar Patnaik was the first to assist the Raja in this work, then Pandit Nilamani Vidyaratna took over as editor of the paper. At p. 20 of "Basudev Granthabali" (Oriya) also, the *Sambalpur Hitaisini* is stated to have started publication from 1887.

Press, Sambalpur, The *Hirakhand* (ହୀରାଖଣ୍ଡ), an Oriya literary monthly, edited by late Swapneswar Das found publication in 1919. Then came *Seba* (ସେବା), a literary monthly. It was in circulation during 1921-22. The *Nabayuga* (ନବଯୁଗ), a literary monthly, was in publication during 1928—38 edited by a number of persons during different periods of time. All these periodicals centred round the Fraser Press. The publication of *Seba* was revived after Independence and was in circulation for some time.

The *Sankha*, an Oriya literary magazine, started publication from Sambalpur in July, 1944 under the patronage of Raja Bhanu Ganga Tribhuban Dev of Bamra. It was a monthly magazine devoted to art literature and culture. Dr. Mayadhar Mansinha was its first editor. At first it began its publication from Sambalpur, but war-time paper control regulations created difficulties for it. So it shifted to Deogarh which was immune from those regulations. The magazine had a circulation of a little over one thousand. The leading contributors to this magazine were Late Jalandar Dev, Sashibhusan Rai, Kalindi Charan Panigrahi, Binayak Misra, Mayadhar Mansinha, Satchidananda Routroy, Jnanindra Verma, Radhamohan Gadanayak and Krushna Chandra Panigrahi. Late Bimbadhar Verma was contributing art and paintings. At the time of Second World War, when there was not a single Oriya literary magazine in the then province, the *Sankha* held singularly the field of Oriya literature. It could bring to lime-light a number of talented writers. A notable feature is that this was the only magazine which for the first time introduced payment for writing in Orissa and paid honorarium at the rate of Rs. 10 per article published. It ceased publication in 1948.

During 1955-56, late Pandit Laxminarayan Misra edited two Oriya deriodicals *Prajashakti* (ପ୍ରଜାଶକ୍ତି), and *Subrati* (ସୁବ୍ରତୀ). The *Jeeban* (ଜୀବନ) and *Bichhuati* (ବିଛୁଆତି) were published in 1959, and *Vaidyabandhu* (ବୈଦ୍ୟବନ୍ଧୁ) quarterly in 1960.

The *Bhubanshree* (ଭୁବନଶ୍ରୀ), a literary monthly edited by Surendranath Misra, was published in 1967 from Sambalpur.

The *Aluminium Samachar*, a quarterly in English, started publication in 1959. This is a house magazine of the Indian Aluminium Co., Hirakud. It has a circulation of about 825 copies, distributed free to employees of the said company. It seeks to highlight and recognise the achievements of employees and to infuse a consciousness in them about safety, family planning, small savings, good house-keeping, cost and waste control, and productivity.

The *Saswati*, a literary quarterly in Oriya, started publication in June 1969 from Sambalpur under the auspices of Koshal Sahitya Samaj, Sambalpur. It has a circulation of about 1,000.

APPENDIX I

Affiliated Colleges of Sambalpur University

Sl. No.	Name of College	Year of Incep-tion	Number of Students			No. of Teachers
			Male	Female	Total	
	(Sambalpur District)					
1	G. M. College, Sambalpur.	1944	1,660	269	1,929	87
2	University College of Engineering, Burla.	1956	751	..	751	66
3	Veer Surendra Sai Medical College, Burla.	1959	785	110	895	111
4	Government Women's College, Sambalpur.	1959	..	185	185	20
5	Panchayat College, Bargarh.	1960	574	38	612	42
6	Government Training College, Sambalpur.	1962	120	40	160	8
7	Deogarh College, Deogarh.	1963	109	6	115	16
8	G. M. Evening College, Sambalpur.	1963	636	2	638	21
9	Kuchinda College, Kuchinda.	1964	174	7	181	14
10	Larambha College, Larambha.	1964	95	1	96	8
11	Anchal College, Padampur.	1965	200	2	202	16
12	Lajpat Rai Law College, Sambalpur.	1965	206	..	206	5
13	Laxminarayan College, Jharsuguda.	1969	46	..	46	5
	Total ..	..	5,356	660	6,016	419

(The number of students and teachers relate to year 1969)

Affiliated Colleges of Sambalpur University (Contd.)

Sl. No.	Name of College	Year of Esta-blish-ment	Courses of Study
	(Balangir District)		
1	D. A. V. College, Titlagarh ..	1968	1st year degree stage in Arts, Science and Commerce.
2	Government Training College, Balangir.	1968	B. Ed.
3	Jawaharlal College, Patnagarh	1964	Degree stage in Arts
4	Rajendra College, Balangir ..	1944	Degree stages in Arts, Science and Commerce.
5	Sonepur College, Sonepur ..	1964	Degree stage in Arts
6	Women's College, B langir ..	1962	Degree stage in Arts
	(Sundargarh District)		
7	Regional Engineering College, Rourkela.	1961	B.Sc.(Engg.), M.Sc. (Engg.), Post-graduate in Physics.
8	Rourkela Night College, Rourkela.	1966	2nd year degree stage in Arts.
9	Rourkela Science College, Rourkela.	1961	Degree stage in Science
10	Sundargarh College, Sundargarh	1958	Degree stages in Arts and Science.
11	Sushilavati Khosla D. A. V. College for Women, Rourkela.	1967	Degree stages in Arts and Science.
	(Kalahandi District)		
12	Kalahandi College, Bhawanipatna.	1960	Degree stages in Arts and Science.

APPENDIX II

Schools in Sambalpur District (1968)

Sl. No.	Type of School		For Boys	For Girls	Total Schools
1	High	..	87	10	97
2	Middle	..	285	15	300
3	Senior Basic	..	2	..	2
4	Ashram	..	4	1	5
5	Primary	..	2,030	16	2,046
6	Junior Basic	..	36	..	36
7	Sevashram	..	165	..	165
8	Secondary Training	..	2	1	3
9	Elementary Training	..	2	1	3
10	Engineering	..	1	..	1
11	Polytechnic	..	1	..	1
12	Sanskrit Tol	..	2	..	2
13	Urdu Schools	..	3	1	4

CHAPTER XVI

Medical and Public Health Services

197. Survey of Public Health and Medical Facilities in Early times

Public health suffered from early times due to epidemics and lack of knowledge about their cure and prevention. Cholera and small-pox were of frequent occurrence. As a result, villages were being complet ly depopulated and deserted. Witch doctors were consulted at the time of cholera and smallpox, which were believed to be cause by the mother Goddess called Thakurani and Sitala respectively Mr. Motte presents an interesting account of magic cure which may be quoted below : "The common disease of the country is a violent fever, the first symptom of which is being light-headed. The doctor first enjoins the patient to vow a sacrifice to Sumbhute, the deity of the place, to expiate her wrath. He then proceeds to exercise the patient gently if his fever be mild, but with greater violence if he be light-headed. They then employ five or six men to hold the patient in a sitting posture, while the doctor jabbers over a form of words, blowing in his face at each period. This provokes him very much : he swears, abuses and curses horridly; this is all placed to the account of the devil in him. They aggravate his rage by holding a burning horse's hoof, so that all the smoke goes up his nostrils. He grows outrageous, till, quite exhausted by the struggles he makes to extricate himself from those that hold him, he falls down almost insensible; and a profuse perspiration succeeding, they cover him up close to encourage it, which carries off the fever. He sleeps usually twelve hours and awakes so much emaciated as is surprising. Thus he is cured of his madness, by means which drive a sane man out of his senses. If the patient is so much exhausted that he cannot struggle, the doctor pronounces the devil to be too much for him". *

The Ayurvedic system of cure was very popular and there were many village Kabirajas and Vaidyas in the district. A notable Kabiraj was Gopinath Sarangi who was living in the Court of Maharaja Chhatra Sai (1690—1725). His bilingual work "Chikitchha Manjari" written in Sanskrit and Oriya is regarded as an authoritative work on Ayurveda.

In spite of the derogatory remarks of the foreign visitors about the general health condition of the inhabitants of the district, there were several instances of persons exhibiting great physical courage and strength. One Biva Bisi in the early 19th century could fight with big bulls and carry with his teeth big brass jars full of water,

* Sambalpur District Gazetteer (1931) F. C. King. Pp 56-57

to a long distance[1]. Banamali Pujari of Sambalpur was a famous wrestler. He is known to have vanquished many notable wrestlers even at his young age. While working as a camp clerk under Mr. L. E. B. Cobden Ramsay, I. C. S. he once exibited his courage and strength by cycling in the night through the dense forest of Rairakhol and covering 42 miles in three hours. On the way he had to fight with a big bear[2].

The present day climate of the district is healthy. In the past, it had a bad reputation for unhealthiness. From the records available, it was noticed that the inhabitants of the area were subject to rheumatism. Mr. Motte visited Sambalpur in 1766. The observation made by him regarding the climate of the place is given below. "The air of Sumbhulpoor is very unwholesome, owing to the great vicissitudes of heat and cold; for the valleys, the only inhabited parts, are impenetrable to the breezes, which during the hot season, render the torrid zone tolerable, while, if a shower comes, such a piercing wind comes with it from the mountains, that I have, within twenty-four hours, felt the weather hotter and colder than I ever felt it in Bengal within twelve months. This makes the inhabitants subject to rheumatisms, and this occasioned every person I carried with me to be affected with violent fevers".[3] A description of the country in 1841 says categorially that the climate of Sambalpur was very pestiferous, indeed, so great was its unhealthiness that it had proved the grave of almost every European Officer who had been stationed there.

Between 1930 and 1934 the Chief Editor had noticed the climate of Sambalpur and neighbourhood and of Bargarh plains to be remarkably healthy. There were however pockets of dangerous fever such as Deogarh where two days camp in 1947 gave his family cerebral malaria and he found village Mundkati and other villages in Barapahar hills deserted on account of fever. The valleys of Narsinghnath and of Jharghati hills and many areas of Deogarh and Rairakhol subdivisions would deserve the slander which Motte thought fit to heap on the country when he visited Sambalpur.

198. Vital Statistics

In the past the system of reporting vital statistics in Sambalpur and Baragarh subdivisions was the same as adopted in the Central Provinces, in which the district was at one time included and it was different from that prevailing in other districts of Orissa. There was no collection of vital statistics in the areas of the other three subdivisions of Deogarh, Kuchinda, and Rairakhol, which formerly constituted the princely States. After merger, with a

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[1] Baikunthanath in his letters P 80

[2] A sketch of Dr. Janardan Pujari life with an Anthology, PP. 31-32.

[3] Sambalpur District Gazetteer (1931) F. C. King, P. 54

view to take preventive measures against epidemics, collection of weekly figures of attacks and deaths from smallpox and cholera started from July 1948. The Bengal Births and Deaths Registration Act, 1873 (Act IV of 1873) which was in force in other parts of the district, was extended to these three subdivisions, and a systematic collection of vital statistics started from January 1952.

In rural areas the duty of reporting births and deaths devolved on the headmen of the villages and village watchmen. The village watchman was supplied with a printed book in which entries of births and deaths were made as they occurred by the headman, or, if he could not read or write, by a patwari or school master. At prescribed intervals, usually once a week, the village watchman took his book to the police-station to which his village was attached and the entries were copied out in the vital statistics register by the Police Muharrir with his initials in each entry. Copies of the totals entered in the register were forwarded monthly to the Civil Surgeon's office at headquarters, where the district returns were prepared. In muncipal towns the duty of reporting births and deaths rested with the nearest male relative (above the age of 16 years) of the persons born or deceased, and breach of this rule was punishable with fine to a maximum of Rs. 50.

The old system of collection of vital statistics through Chowkidar was continuing in the district till the Chowkidari system was abolished in 1965. At the village level the vital statistics was collected by the village Chowkidar and was transmitted to Thana Officer where it was compiled for each thana and transmitted to the District Health Officer. The district figures were transmitted to the Director of Health Services, Orissa and then to Registrar-General of Vital Statistics, New Delhi. But after abolition of Chowkidari system, it became very hard on the part of district officials to collect reports on vital statistics. In fact, except for the three towns viz , Sambalpur, Jharsuguda, and Deogarh, no reports from other places regarding the registration of births and deaths could reach the district headquarters. This continued up to the end of 1966. After promulgation of Grama Rakhi Ordinance, 1967, the Thana Officers have again been entrusted to continue the work of births and deaths registration from 1st January 1967. But only a few Thana Officers have taken action in the matter.

Sample registration scheme of births and deaths started on pilot basis in Bisipali under Padampur police-station and in Jujomura police-station during 1966-67. It has now covered twelve rural units, viz., Basanpali, Thalmanda, Naksapali, Jujomura, Kusraloi, Gandghora, and Kudabaga of Sambalpur subdivision, Bisipali, Sargipali, and Bhoipali of Bargarh subdivision and Mochibahal, and Sudmunda of Rairakhol subdivision. Two urban units coming under the above scheme are located at Jharsuguda, and Hirakud.

Besides, a model scheme for registration of vital statistics has been introduced in Padampur Primary Health Centre.

The table given below relates to the figures of vital statistics for three towns viz., Sambalpur, Jharsuguda, and Deogarh of Sambalpur district from 1966 to 1968.

BIRTH AND DEATHS

Year		Births			Deaths		
		Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1966	..	846	793	1,639	250	179	429
1967	...	1,186	1,061	2,247	397	322	719
1968	..	1,164	950	2,114	297	295	592

Male population has increased 8 per cent higher than the female population.

INFANT MORTALITY

(Under 0 to 1 year)

Year		Male	Female	Total
1966	..	50	61	111
1967	..	44	32	76
1968	..	44	39	83

199. Diseases common to the District

Among the common diseases found in the district menti n may be made of fever, dysentery and diarrhoea, respiratory diseases, T. B., filaria, skin diseases and diseases due to malnutrition.

A table showing number of patients treated for various diseases in different years (1965—1969) is given in appendix.

Dysentery and diarrhoea are usually frequent and fatal. The prevalance of these and other bowel complaints should probably be attributed to the impure source of the drinking water-supply. Different types

of skin disease cases are also increasing in the district. Filaria, which was a common diseases of the coastal districts is also spreading gradually in the district, although the incidence is very low. T. B. has become a major disease of the district. In 1959 only 520 persons suffered from this disease whereas in 1969 the figure rose to 4,930. Yearly thousands of patients suffering from malignant neoplasm and various heart diseases are treated in ditterent hospitals of the district.

In the past malaria was the most fatal disease of the district. In 1929, greatest mortality was caused by fever, and the death rate was 12·65 out of the total death rate of 26·89 per mile. The majority of cases of fever were of malarial types.

At present due to the work of National Malaria Eradication Programme Organisation, this fever though not fully eradicated, has been brought under control. In fact, when 321 persons of the district suffered from this fever in 1965, in 1967 only 37 persons have been affected by this disease. Now this fever generally makes its appearance in Jamankira police-station area.

Besides malaria, typhoid and other fevers are also prevalent. During the decade ending 1967, on an average 30 persons died yearly due to various types of fever in the district.

Epidemics of cholera were common in the past, breaking out nearly every hot season, owing to the train of pilgrims on their way to and from the temple of Jagannath at Puri. After the construction of the railway line, the pilgrim trafic was diverted. The people have a great dread of this disease and villagers will not allow visitors from a cholera affected area entry into their village while the epidemic lasts. Cholera was endemic in all the years during the decade ending 1960. "Though deaths during 1951, 1953—57 and 1959-60 were not much and did not exceed even 50 each, the years 1952 and 1958 recorded as many as 780 and 184 deaths respectively. Both in 1952 and 1958, the disease began to take tolls from the beginning of summer and subsided towards the close of the rainy season. Deaths in the year 1952 began to rise from March and the toll was highest in June accounting for loss of 279 lives. In July and August the disease maintained its severity, but was completely controlled by the end of September leaving the last quarter of the year free from its attack. In 1958, deaths were greatest during July and the disease continued to cause mortality till the end of the year".[1] From 1961 to 1964 on an average 7 persons died due to the disease in the district. But between 1965 to 1969 only one person died out of two suffered from cholera.

Leprosy prevails in the district.

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[1] Census of India, 1961, Orissa District Census Hand Book, Sambalpur, P. 49

Smallpox took a greater toll of human lives than cholera during 1951 to 1960. "Like Cholera, it visited the district in all the 10 years, but deaths during 1953, 1955 and 1956 were negligible being only 61,54 and 9, respectively. During 1951 and 1958, however, it caused 1,118 and 1,406 deaths, respectively. In both these years, deaths were reported in all the months, but the number was greater between March to August. The disease went on spreading till July and thereafter it began to subside. During 1958, the year which saw the greatest mortality in the decade, a tendency of smallpox to rise in epidemic form was seen from March and the months between May to August were its peak period. The deaths in the months of June and July were as high as 255 and, 262, respectively. In this epidemic, worst affected were the police-station areas of Rengali, Lakhanpur, Sasan, Jagdalpur and Paikmal.[1]" In between 1961 and 1969 the highest number of deaths was recorded in 1963. In that year there were 168 smallpox deaths, followed by 129 deaths in 1967. In other years the disease took about 11 human lives on an average in the district.

200. Public Hospitals and Dispensaries

The medical department (curative system) is under the control of the Civil Surgeon, Sambalpur, who is also the Superintendent of all hospitals of the district. At present there are 14 Government hospitals (excluding the hospital attached to the Medical College, Burla), 21 dispensaries, 27 primary health centres and 14 maternity and child welfare centres.

***(i)* District Headquarters Hospital, Sambalpur**

It is a well equipped hospital having six doctors. Besides, there are six nurses, three pharmacists, a radiographer, a Dai and a technician. There are special provisions for treatment of T. B. and veneral diseases. The total bed strength of the hospital is 90.

***(ii)* Bargarh Hospital**

This hospital is one of the oldest hospitals of the district. It has been provided with 25 beds, a doctor, a Lady Assistant Surgeon, two nurses, three pharmacists, a Dai and one midwife.

***(iii)* Deogarh Hospital**

Established prior to the merger of the ex-State of Bamra with Sambalpur, it has 54 beds, two doctors, four nurses, three pharmacists, one radiographer, one Dai and a midwife. An X-ray plant has been provided in this hospital.

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1. Census of India, 1961, Orissa, District Census Hand-Book, Sambalpur P 44,

(iv) Kuchinda Hospital

This subdivisional hospital, established during the Durbar Administration contains 24 beds. It has been provided with a doctor, three nurses, three pharmacists and one Dai.

(v) Rairakhol Hospital

It is also a subdivisional hospital and has provision of 7 beds. A doctor, a nurse, a pharmacist, a Dai and a staff dresser are working in this hospital.

(vi) Gobindpur Hospital

This hospital, established prior to 1948, has been provided with 20 beds, a doctor, two nurses, three pharmacists and a Dai.

(vii) Padampur Hospital

Established by the ex-Zamindar of Padampur, it is functioning from the early part of this century. At present it has 6 beds having a doctor, a pharmacist and a staff dresser.

(viii) Police Hospital, Sambalpur

This hospital is exclusively meant for the treatment of Police personnels. Established in 1950, it has been provided with 14 beds, a doctor, a pharmacist, two male nurses and a dresser.

(ix) O. M. P. Hospital, Jharsuguda

For treatment of O. M. P. personnel, this hospital was established near Jharsuguda town in 1950. It has provision of treatment for 22 indoor patients having two doctors, two pharmacists, five nurses including two male nurses and a staff dresser.

(x) Naikul Hospital

Established in 1950, this hospital is managed by the Tribal & Rural Welfare Department and is controlled by the Civil Surgeon, Sambalpur. There is provision of 6 beds having a doctor and a pharmacist.

(x) Jharsuguda Hospital

This hospital was previously managed by the District Board, and was taken over by the State Government in 1959. This hospital has 19 beds under charge of a doctor, two pharmacists, five nurses including two male nurses and two Dais. For Railway employees, a separate hospital at Jharsuguda has been established under South-Eastern Railway with 6 beds.

(xii) Barpali Hospital

This hospital is managed by a doctor. He is assisted by a nurse, a pharmacist and a Dai. The hospital is provided with 6 beds.

(*xiii*) Barkot Hospital

This hospital is provided with 12 beds, a medical officer, a nurse, a pharmacist and a Dai.

(*xiv*) Jamseth Hospital

This hospital managed by the Tribal & Rural Welfare Department has been established in 1961. It has been provided with 6 beds.

201. Dispensaries

A list of dispensaries of the district with the staff position and location of each is given below. Prior to 1959, the dispensaries (from serial Nos. 5 to 17) were managed by the District Board. At present they are all managed by the Health Department of Government. There is no provision for indoor patients in these dispensaries. A doctor has been provided for each of these institutions.

List of Dispensaries with staff position

Sl. No.	Name of Dispensary		Medical Officer	Pharma-cist	Dresser	Dai	Servants and sweepers
1.	Kodobahal	..	1	1	..	1	2
2.	Jamankira	..	1	1	..	1	2
3.	Sangramal	..	1	1	...	1	2
4.	Sahaspur	..	1	1	...	...	2
5.	Palsada	..	1	...	1	1	2
6.	Belpahar	..	1	1	..	1	2
7.	Kumbharbandh	...	1	...	1	—	2
8.	Rengali	...	1	1	1	1	2
9.	Parmanpur	..	1	—	...	—	2
10.	Dhama	...	1	1	...	—	2
11.	Gandturum	...	1	1	..	—	2
12.	Gaisilat	...	1	...	—	—	2
13.	Laumunda	..	1	1	...	—	2
14.	Paikmal	...	1	—	—	—	2
15.	Jagdalpur	..	1	..	..	—	2
16.	Ambabhona	..	1	1	...	—	2
17.	Ghens	..	1	..	..	...	2
18.	Padiabahal	..	1	..	—	—	2
19.	Naktideul	..	1	1	—	—	2
20.	Saipal	..	1	1	1	1	2
21.	Panimura	..	1	1	...	1	2

202. Ayurvedic and Homoeopathic Dispensaries

There are 9 Government Ayurvedic dispensaries in this district located at Katarbaga, Laikera, Riamal, Badmal, Laimura, Kandheikela, Garposh, Pha.i:ada and Kansar. Each of these institutions has been provided with a Kaviraj and is under the management of the Superintendent, Ayurvedic Institutions, Orissa.

The only Government Homoeopathic dispensary has been established in the village of Kudamahada since 1965.

The Director of Ayurvedic and Homoeopathic Medicines, Orissa is the controlling officer for both Ayurvedic and Homoeopathic dispensaries.

203. Primary Health Centres

Primary Health Centre is an integrated institution where there is integration of medical and public health activities. There are 27 Primary Health Centres in this district located at Fasimal, Mudrajore, Chhatabar, Laida, Bukramunda, Dava, Talpali, Kirmira, Lakhanpur, Themra Bhukta, Katapali, Jujomura, Charmal, Bijepur, Kolabira, Bamparda, Bhatli, Debeipali, Bheden, Padampur, Rajpur, Agalpur, Kuntura, Sohela, Bemur and Garposh. Each of the centre is provided with a doctor.

These centres are catering to the curetive and preventive needs of the people.

204. Maternity and Child Welfare

There are four maternity and child welfare centres managed by Health Department functioning in the district at present to take care of the expectant mothers and new born babies. These centres are located at Sambalpur, Rairakhol, Bargarh and Jharsuguda. Moreover, there are 10 Tribal & Rural Welfare managed centres located at Jamankira, Kulundi, Laikera, Sahaspur, Paikmal, Bheden, Burkel, Jagdalpur, Kesaibahal and Garposh. Besides, there is a Red Cross Maternity Dai Centre at Tamperkela in Baragarh subdivision.

205. Family Planning

To encourage birth control among the people in a scientific manner the first Family Planning Centre of the district was established in 1956. Subsequently three more centres at Bargarh, Padampur, and Bheden were also opened in 1958.

The District Family Planning Bureau, Sambalpur started functioning from September, 1964. By now 22 Blocks of the district, viz., Attabira, Padampur, Bheden, Jharsuguda, Barpali, Decgarh, Jamankira, Kuchinda, Paikmal, Jharbandh, Gaisilat, Bhatli, Laikera-I, Laikera-II,

Laikera-III, Rengali, Sambalpur-III, Sobela, Bargarh, Gobindpur, Ambabhona, and Lakhanpur have come under the Family Planning Scheme. There are five Urban Family Planning Centres at Sambalpur, Bargarh, Deogarh, Rairakhol, and Jharsuguda. Except Jharsuguda, the other four towns have been provided with static sterilisation units. Another static sterilisation unit is working at Kuchinda. Besides, there are three mobile units established to carry out service camps in rural areas of the district.

A table given below shows the number of persons who have taken to vasectomy, tubectomy, I. U. C. D. and number of oral pills distributed from 1965-66 to 1968-69.

Year		Vasectomy	Tubectomy/ I. U. C. D.		Oral Pills
1		2	3		4
1965-66	..	5,673	6(266 I. U. C. D.)	..	..
1966-67	..	14,151	2(1,128 I. U. C. D.)	..	..
1967-68	..	9,267	9(5,671 I. U. C. D.)	..	..
1968-69	..	3,068	45 (2,304 I. U. C. D.)	..	102

206. Institutions managed by Local Bodies

Previously the District Board (now defunct) was managing 17 hospitals and dispensaries which have been transferred to the Health Department from the 1st April 1959. Only two institutions, namely, Dr. J. P. Maternity Hospital, Sambalpur, and Khetrajpur Dispensary are managed by the Sambalpur Municipality. The Maternity Hospital is being managed by the Municipality since 1954 having 14 beds.

207. Private Hospitals

There are four private hospitals at Hirakud, Brajrajnagar, Belpahar, and Rampur. These institutions have been established for the employees of the Alluminium Industries at Hirakud, Orient Paper Mills at Brajarajnagar, Refractory Factory at Belpahar, and Rampur Colliery respectively.

Besides, there are two dispensaries located at Panimura and Lakhanpur managed by Orient Paper Mills, one located at Dungri managed by the Industrial Development Corporation, and the other two located at Amagaon, and Diptipur which are managed by the Christian Mission. In addition, there are two subsidised dispensaries functioning at Larambha and Remenda.

208. Teaching Institution

There is a Medical College at Burla. It has teaching facilities for medical graduates, pharmacists, nurses, midwives and sanitary inspectors. The attached hospital of this college has been provided with 588 beds. At the headquarters hospital, Sambalpur, there is also provision for training of midwives and Dais.

209. Sanitation

The administrative set up of the health and sanitation department have been dealt with in the Chapter XIII. Public Health staff have been posted in the municipalities. The district has been divided into 13 ranges to provide public health facilities in rural areas.

Previously the village sanitation of the district was regulated by the Central Provinces Village Sanitation Act and Makaddam Rules. There were, however, many villages which were too large for the sanitation to be left in the hands of the Makaddam, and yet too small to come under the Bihar & Orissa Municipal Act. For such villages, the Village Sanitation Act (XI of 1902) was passed.

210. Protected Water-Supply

The towns of Deogarh, Sambalpur, Jharsuguda, Bargarh, Burla, Hirakud, and Brajarajnagar have been provided with protected water-supply system. In addition, 12 villages, viz., Bejepur, Barapali, Kuchinda, Rampur, Gobindpur, Belpahar, Rengali, Katarbaga, Sohela, Attabira, Bheden and Padampur are getting the facility of pipe water. Besides, three other villages, viz., Tora, Adogaon and Katapali are to be supplied with pipe water soon. Also, a number of wells have been protected in both rural and urban areas for supply of pure drinking water.

211. Anti-Malarial Measures

For treatment of malaria cases, quinine tablets and medicines are supplied. Besides, the D. D. T. spraying are being done by the officers of National Malaria Eradication Programme.

212. Leprosy

For treatment of leprosy, three colonies have been established at Hatibari, Deogarh and Bargarh. The Hatibari colony was started by Padmasree Dr. Isaac Santra, a reputed Leprosy worker. The indoor capacity of Hatibari Leprosy Colony is for 200 patients, Deogarh Leprosy Colony for 20 patients and Bargarh Leprosy Colony for 10 patients. In addition, there are leprosy clinics maintained at Sambalpur, Deogarh, Bargarh, Nadikhandi, Jamurda, Barpali, and Mahada. Government provides staff and grants-in-aid for the colonies and clinics and Hind Kustha Nivaran Sangha, a voluntary organisation manages them. There are two Leprosy Pilot Projects functioning at Attabira and Sohela.

213. T. B.

For treatment of T. B. cases, a separate T. B. clinic is established in the district headquarters hospital at Sambalpur with 6 beds. The patients are being supplied with anti-T. B. drugs like Streptomycin, P. A. S. and In. H., etc. Also T. B. cases are being treated in all hospitals of the district. As a preventive measure B. C. G. team has been undertaken.

214. Yaws

Yaws are found among the tribal population of the district. The incidence is generally high in the subdivisions of Deogarh, Kuchinda, and Rairakhol. For the prevention and treatment of this disease, a separate Anti-Yaws team is working in the district. The team is also surveying and giving medicines, etc., for the prevention of the disease.

215. Vaccination

Primary vaccination was compulsory only in the municipal area of Sambalpur and was carried on by a paid Municipal Vaccinator. In the rural areas licensed vaccinators were employed. These vaccinators worked from October to March. For each successful case they realised a fee of two annas (12 paise) and they did not get any pay from Government. Though regarded by a section of the community with certain dislike, it could not be said that there was any general antipathy to the campaign. Speaking generally, there was no objection to the primary vaccination of children but the people as a whole looked upon re-vaccination with aversion. Innoculation for smallpox was formally practised, but it was subsequently changed in 1918-19 to the scratch method of vaccination.

At present the common people have become more conscious of taking precaution against the disease. Although a few people dread the practice of vaccination there is no escape because of rapid spread of disease. A statement showing figures of vaccination, re-vaccination and innoculation for the last five years (1965—69) is given below:

	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969
Primary vaccination.	59,344	50,419	53,070	38,752	80,089
Re-vaccination	171,349	213,507	268,106	229,920	179,853
Innoculation (Cholera).	112,027	863,559	246,008	243,929	152,458

Year	T. B.			Fever		
	Out-door	In-door	Death	Out-door	In-door	Death
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1965 ..	4,019	514	24	9,690	107	4
1966 ..	3,975	473	15	9,205	217	2
1967 ..	5,368	319	6	10,551	311	1
1968 ..	6,025	403	12	6,684	253	1
1969 ..	4,659	271	10	6,302	221	4

Year	Filaria			Dysentery		
	Out-door	In-door	Death	Out-door	In-door	Death
1	8	9	10	11	12	13
1965 ..	1,617	70	..	40,298	710	13
1966 ..	240	175	..	21,757	310	7
1967 ..	393	10	..	54,455	582	8
1968 ..	1,127	7	..	48,215	407	3
1969 ..	756	6	..	39,416	359	1

Year		Malignant Neoplasm			Heart Diseases		
		Out-door	In-door	Death	Out-door	In-door	Death
1		14	15	16	17	18	19
1965	..	3,740	1,010	22	1,936	322	31
1966	..	6,989	451	26	1,494	401	28
1967	..	16,364	959	20	1,442	395	47
1968	..	11,318	785	23	1,619	414	46
1969	..	6,671	372	20	972	419	19

Year		Injuries (Natal and Prenatal)					
		Birth injuies			Postnatal asphyxia and atelectasia		
		Out-door	In-door	Death	Out-door	In-door	Death
1		20	21	22	23	24	25
1965	..	290	17	..	46	4	3
1966	..	221	179	17	39	15	..
1967	..	201	41	2	83	30	6
1968	..	461	90	..	48	8	2
1969	..	99	9	7	100	28	9

Year	Injuries (Natal and Prenatal)					
	Infections of the new born			Heamolytic disease of the new born		
	Out-door	In-door	Death	Out-door	In-door	Death
1	26	27	28	29	30	31
1965 ..	695	125	18	136	37	..
1966 ..	1,714	198	13	54	73	..
1967 ..	1,437	264	19	136	11	..
1968 ..	1,579	252	19	205	156	13
1969 ..	1,381	156	32	74	6	..

Year	Injuries (Natal and Prenatal)		
	All other diseases of early infancy		
	Out-door	Indoor	Death
1	32	33	34
1965 ..	645	..	..
1966 ..	2,515	6	..
1967 ..	295	167	..
1968 ..	3,941	86	4
1969 ..	672	260	..

CHAPTER XVII

OTHER SOCIAL SERVICES

216. Labour Welfare

Out of the total population of 1,508,686 persons in the district 132,382 are agricultural labourers. Besides, 31,339 persons who are primarily land owners, have to work as labourers in other's farms to supplement their income. Since agriculture provides seasonal employment, the labourers find work in miscellaneous types of work not connected with agriculture in and around the village. The wages they get are insufficient to provide them with their bare necessities of life. Socially and economically these families form the weakest section of the society. From time to time, attempts have been made to devise means as to how to improve the economic condition of this large section of the rural community which is 23·4 per cent of the total rural families in the district. On account of excess of labour supply the wages they get are very low except in busy seasons of farm operation. Although a minimum wage has been prescribed by the Government, at times the labourers are forced to accept something which can hardly be called wages for work. They are underemployed and undernourished. Release of population from land and provision of non-farm employment on a wide scale will improve their condition.

Besides agriculture, factories, commercial establishments, construction works, etc. provide employment to a large number of labourers of the district. Most of the industrial establishments located in the urban areas are exceedingly small in size. These units provide employment to a small section of industrial labourers. In comparison to some other districts of Orissa, Sambalpur is industrially developed and contains a number of big factories located at Hirakud, Jharsuguda, Bargarh, Brajarajnagar, and Belpahar. So far as economic conditions of these labourers are concerned they are a little better than the agricultural labourers.

To protect the interest of the labourers the State Government have fixed the minimum wages for different categories of employment as far back as 1960. The service condition of factory workers are regulated by various labour laws in force. The workers of a few major industries or State Transport Organisation have their own labour unions which look after the rights and privileges of their members. These workers are provided with recreational, cultural and educational facilities and maintain a better standard of living than the other labourers. Generally

the labourers of the district are illiterate and are not aware of their privileges. They get wages less than the minimum rate of wages fixed by the Government.

The office of the Labour Department in the district located at Sambalpur maintains contact with the employers, workers and trade union representatives and is responsible for enforcement of various labour laws relating to non-payment of wages, overtime work, discharge or termination of service etc. Most of the industrial disputes are settled through conciliation, failing which they are settled through voluntary arbitration. Cases are also referred to adjudication according to the gravity of the case.

To provide better housing facilities to the industrial labourers the State Government have constructed 50 tenements at Sambalpur and 20 tenements at Jharsuguda. There are two Multipurpose Labour Welfare Centres run by the Government and some voluntary labour welfare centres aided by the Goverment are being organised by the workers in the district. These centres provide cultural, educational, and recreational facilities to the workers and to their families.

The following labour laws are in force in the district:

1. Indian Factories Act
2. Minimum Wages Act
3. Payment of Wages Act
4. Employment of Children Act
5. Orissa Shop and Commercial Establishment Act
6. Trade Union Act
7. Industrial Employement (Standing Orders) Act
8. Fair Wages Clauses and Contractor Labour Regulation
9. Workmen's Compensation Act
10. Employees' State Insurance Scheme
11. Employees' Provident Fund Act
12. Motor Transport Workers Act
13. Industrial Dispute Act
14. Beedi and Cigar (Condition of Employment) Act
15. Maternity Benefit Act
16. Orissa Industrial Housing Act
17. Payment of Bonus Act

217. Advancement of Backward Classes and Tribes :

The district has a large backward population which is nearly two thirds of the total population. The backward classes are broadly subdivided into (*a*) scheduled tribes, (*b*) scheduled castes and (*c*) other backward classes. The scheduled tribes and scheduled castes population in the district totalled 439,405 and 244,985 respectively in 1961 Census. The scheduled tribes and scheduled castes form distinct sections of the population both from economic and social points of view. All the castes enlisted by the State Government as other backward classes are not economically backward. But there are not many from among these classes in the educated professions.

The State Government has created a separate department at the State level as well as at the district level to deal with problems of the backward classes in respect of educational, cultural and economic development.

(*a*) Education

During 1931, there were 20 primary schools specially meant for depressed-class students attended by 714 pupils. The total number of such children attending all schools was 1,981. There were 2 primary schools specially meant for scheduled tribes attended by 95 pupils, while the total number of such pupils in all classes of schools was 1,990.

At present there are 157 Sevashrams (Primary schools) functioning in the district having a total strength of 12,671 students, out of which 6,711 belong to scheduled tribes, 3,572 to scheduled castes and the rest 2,387 to other backward classes. The teaching staff consists of 335 members including 5 females. Besides, there are 4 high schools, 4 M. E. schools, including one for girls. The total number of pupils being 1,106. Nearly rupees four lakhs have been spent so far to provide such students with hostels in different schools. The Government, awards scholarships to backward class pupils from class IV to Class XI in all schools and provides reading and writing materials to such students from class I to III. During 1968-69 a sum of Rs. 35,471 was spent for supply of text books and writing materials. Rs. 3,44,508 was spent in awarding scholarships to 1,914 students belonging to scheduled tribes, 669 students belonging to scheduled castes and 121 students belonging to other backward classes during 1968-69, reading in M. E. and high schools of the district. 15,130 primary school students were benefited with scholarships and in shape of text books and writing materials etc. and an amount of Rs. 1,11,390 was spent during 1968-69.

(*b*) Economic schemes for upliftment of backward classes and tribes

For economic development of backward class people attention is being given to improvement of agriculture and reclamation of land. In order to discourage the practice of Podu or shifting cultivation,

Government have sponsored the scheme of settling the Adibasis in colonies in plains. Families resettled in such colonies are supplied with lands and agricultural implements free of cost, while subsidy in cash is given for building houses and reclamation of fallow lands. Upto the end of 1967, 360 Adibasi families have been settled in 10 rehabilitation colonies in the district at an expense of Rs. 3,87,286. Facilities for irrigation, drinking water, roads, and schools are provided in these colonies.

The Government have started 61 Grain Golas to provide the backward people paddy and cash loans at a low rate of interest. Schemes are also being worked out for development of cottage industries and crafts through co-operative societies.

(c) **Health and Sanitation**

Apart from the general medical facilities available in the district two six-beded hospitals located at Naikul and Jamseth, an allopathic dispensary at Jharbandh and an Ayurvedic dispensary at Kandheikela have been constructed for the benefit of the tribal people of the locality for improvement of sanitary condition of these people. Rs. 6,72,353 was spent to construct 1,049 hutments and Rs. 7,13,423 for supply of drinking water in rural area. Besides, for improvement of communication facilities 900 kms. of village roads and 118 culverts and causeways have been constructed for which a sum of Rs. 3,38,415 has been spent up to the end of 1967-68.

218. Prohibition

Prohibition of drinking liquor has not been enforced. But some measures to control consumption of intoxicants have been enforced from time to time. The Excise Acts in force in the district are discussed below.

(a) *The Opium Act of 1878*—The object of the Act is to exercise control over free use of opium and its preparations.

(b) *The Bihar and Orissa Excise Act II of 1915*—This Act provides measures to control excess indulgence in all kinds of excisable articles and to ban unauthorised manufacture, possession, transport and sale of all kinds of excisable articles except as provided in the Act.

(c) *The Orissa Opium Smoking Act II of 1928*—The aim of this act is to ban the smoking of Opium in any form within the State.

(d) *The Dangerous Drugs Act II of 1930*—The object of this Act is to control free use of morphia, cocaine and its alkalies.

(e) *The Medicinal and Toilet Preparations duties Act of 1956*—This is a Central Act extending throughout the country. The objective of this Act is to control improper manufacture and use of medicinal and toilet preparations containing rectified spirit and dangerous drugs.

(i) **Crimes**

The nature of crimes generally committed are illicit distillation and manufacture of pachwai or rice beer. Cases of smuggling in *Ganja* and opium from the neighbouring States of Bihar and Madhya Pradesh are also found. But the general tendency of the people is towards distillation of cheap liquor and manufacture of pachwai. In areas inhabited by tribal people raw material is available in plenty for distillation of cheap liquor and the Adivasis are privileged to manufacture pachwai freely. In inaccessible tracts illicit distillation goes unhindered. The local people also do not come forward to co-operate with the preventive staff for the detection of crimes.

(ii) **Medicinal opium**

In 1948-49 a census of the opium addicts was taken in order to enforce a scheme of gradual prohibition in opium within a period of ten years. A quota was fixed for each addict as per requirement. The quota was revised every year with a reduction of 10 per cent and by 1958-59 supply of opium was completely stopped. But since the scheme created certain amount of hardship to the addicts of advanced age and sickly persons, they were again registered by Government Doctors from the 1st April 1959 to the 31st March 1961. On the whole 990 addicts were registered for supply of medicinal opium. A quota of 19 kgs. per month was prescribed for them. Due to short supply of medicinal opium from the Ghazipur factory, through the agency of Central Depot at Cuttack full quota could not be supplied to the Card-holders. Resurvey of the addicts was taken up and the number was reduced to 837 after elimination of the ghost cards. Thus the quota for 837 addicts comes to 16 kgs. a month. During 1968-69, 80 kgs. 450 grams were supplied which was the highest during the last 5 years. When 192 kgs. is the actual requirement per year it is obvious that either the prescribed amount is exaggerated or the addicts are getting the drug from black market.

(iii) **Cultivation and manufacture of Ganja**

Ganja cultivation was taken up by a private person at Jharsuguda in 1949-50. Next year three persons were given licenses for cultivation. Their number rose to five during 1951-52. The State Government also took up cultivation in the Agricultural Farm at Sambalpur during the same year on an experimental basis. At present there are four Ganja fields located at Deogan, Dhankauda and Godigan and the cultivation covers an area of 38 acres. The products are also supplied to other districts of the State according to requirements. There is prospect of increasing the area under cultivation in Deogarh area where the soil and the climate are suitable.

(*iv*) **Excisable goods**

A limit has been fixed for sale and possession of excisable goods in the district as given below :—

1. Foreign liquor—		
(*a*) Spirits and Wines	..	18 litres
(*b*) Beer	..	19·5 litres
(*c*) Medicated Wines	..	18 litres
(*d*) Rectified spirit	...	At the discretion of the competent authority.
2. Commercial spirit—		
(*a*) Denatured spirit	..	4 litres
(*b*) Methylated spirit	..	4 litres
3. Country spirit—		
(*a*) Distillery spirit	..	3 litres
(*b*) Liquor prepared in out still system.		3 litres
4. Fermented Liquor—		
(*a*) Pachwai (handia) diluted	..	18 litres
(*b*) Pachwai undiluted	..	7 litres
5. Fermented tari	..	4 litres
6. Drugs—		
(*a*) Ganja	..	35 grams
(*b*) Bhang	..	230 grams
(*c*) Medicinal opium	..	As per individual ration card.
(*d*) Medicine containing tincture opium, etc.		Under doctor's prescriptions.
(*e*) Morphine and its preparations (*f*) Cocaine and its preparations	}	Used strictly under the prescription of a physician.

The quanity of excisable commodities consumed during 1964-65 to 1968-69 is given below :—

Name of the commodity	Consumption 1964-65	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69
Country liquor	901,524 (litres)	948,700 (litres)	691,252 (litres)	884,256 (litres)	522,366 (litres)
Foreign liquor	8,777 (litres)	7,597 (litres)	7,578 (litres)	7,583 (litres)	10,621 (litres)
Ganja ..	1,830 kgs. 250 grams	2,201 kgs. 35 grams	2,348 kgs. 250 grams	2,415 kgs.	2,857 kgs.
Bhang ..	29 kgs.	42 kgs. 250 grams	41 kgs. 500 grams	38 kgs. 500 grams	44 kgs.
Opium (medicinal) ..	74 kgs. 946 grams	49 kgs. 982 grams	62 kgs. 644 grams	62 kgs. 416 grams	80 kgs. 450 grams

219. CHARITABLE ENDOWMENTS

(i) Nethersole Trust Fund

This fund was created in notification No. 8789, dated the 19th December 1892 of the Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces, Nagpur out of the collection made by the officials in the settlement Department in 1899 to commemorate Mr. W. Nethersole, once Settlement Officer, Sambalpur. The corpus of the Fund is Rs. 400. The Secretary, High Schools Committee, Sambalpur, is the administrator. The income is utilised in awarding an annual prize of Rs. 16 to a student of the High School of Sambalpur who secures highest percentage of marks in the Entrance Examination, provided the successful student is of Oriya parentage of the Sambalpur district and has studied one year at the High School, Sambalpur.

(ii) Morris Memorial Fund, Sambalpur

This fund was created in notification No. 6555, dated the 21st September 1892 of the Chief Commissioner, C. P., Nagpur by the collection made by the people of Sambalpur. The corpus of the fund is Rs. 18,000. It is administered jointly by the Headmaster, Chandrasekhar Zilla School and the District Magistrate, Sambalpur. The income should

be utilised in awarding three scholarships of the annual value of Rs. 90 each, tenable for two years at any college in Orissa, to the residents of the district of Sambalpur educated at the Sambalpur Zilla School. The balance available after the award of such scholarships should be used for the grant of free studentship to poor and meritorious students of the school who are residents of the district of Sambalpur.

(*iii*) The Kusumakumari Prize Fund, Sambalpur

The fund is created out of the donation made by Babu Chandra Kumar Chatterjee, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, C. P. The corpus of the fund is Rs. 500. It is administered by the Deputy Commissioner, Sambalpur. The income should be utilised in awarding a prize to one of the students of the Sambalpur Zilla School, who stands first in the Matriculation Examination.

(*iv*) The Borasambar Lewis Medal Fund

The fund was created out of a donation made by the Raja Lal Rajendra Singh Bariha Bahadur, Zamindar of Borasambar of Sambalpur in memory of Mr. W. H. Lewis, Deputy Commissioner. The corpus of the fund is Rs. 900. The Deputy Commissioner, Sambalpur and the Subdivisional Officer, Bargarh are the joint administrators of the Fund. The income should be utilised on the annual award of medal to the student of the George High English School, Bargarh, who stands first in Matriculation Examination.

(*v*) Mahant Bihari Das Medal Fund

The fund was created on the donation made by Shri Nilambar Das Mahant of Gopalji Matha at Sambalpur in Commemoration of his late Guru Mahant Bihari Das. The corpus of the fund is Rs. 600. It is administered by the Headmaster, Sambalpur Zilla School. The income should be utilised in the award of a medal, to be called 'The Mahant Bihari Das Medal' to a student of Sambalpur Zilla School, who passes matriculation examination securing highest marks in compulsory sanskrit.

(*vi*) The Baker Medal Fund

The fund was created out of the surplus of amount collected to celebrate the visit to Sambalpur of Sir Edward Normal Baker, Lieutenant Governor of Bengal. The corpus of the fund is Rs. 600. The Deputy Commissioner, Sambalpur is the administrator of the fund. The income should be utilised in the annual award of a medal to the student of the Sambalpur Zilla School, who stands first at the Matriculation Examination from amongst the students of that school in the year.

(*vii*) The Victoria Memorial Scholarship Fund

This fund was created with portion of the balance of the Victoria Memorial Fund, Sambalpur. The corpus of this fund is Rs. 11,500. The Subdivisional Officer, Bargarh and the District Inspector of Schools, Sambalpur are the joint administrators. The income should be spent on the annual award of a scholarship of five rupees a month tenable for six years at the George High School, Bargarh to a poor and deserving student of any school in the Bargarh Tahsil who obtains the highest marks in the U. P. Scholarship Examination provided the income of the guardian does not exceed Rs. 500 a year. The student must not be over 14 years of age on the date of selection for the scholarship.

(*viii*) The Sarojini Devi Trust Fund

The fund was created with a donation made by Rai Bahadur K. C. Sen. The corpus of the fund is Rs. 170. It is administered by the Deputy Commissioner, Sambalpur. The income should be spent on the payment on the salaries of the teachers of the Sambalpur Girls School.

(*ix*) Pravas Kumari Devi Daridra Narayan Trust Fund

This fund was created out of the sum left by late Pravas Kumari Devi, Zamindarini of Barpali of the district of Sambalpur for the purpose of charity. The corpus of the fund is Rs. 22,001. It is administered by the Deputy Commissioner, Sambalpur. The income should be utilised in distributing food and clothings among the poor school children of Barpali *Illaka* on the death anniversary day of Late Pravas Kumari Devi.

(*x*) The Goodridge Endowment Fund

The fund was created with the donation made by Jhon Perch Goodridge, Esq., I. C. S. (Retd.). The corpus of the Fund consists of some landed property and securities worth Rs. 100. It is administered by the Deputy Commissioner, Sambalpur. The income should be spent for the maintenance of pauper lepers.

(*xi*) The Purnima Medal for Proficiency in Music

The fund made out of the donation made by Shri Bharat Chandra Nayak of Sambalpur in commemoration of his deceased daughter, Purnima. The corpus of the fund is Rs. 300. It is administered jointly by the District Magistrate, Sambalpur and the Headmistress, Lady Lewis Girls' School, Sambalpur. The income should be spent on the award of a medal to the winner in music competetion among the girls of Lady Lewis Girls' School, Sambalpur.

(xi) Indumati Medal Fund

This fund was created with the donation made by Miss Snehakana Dutta. The corpus of the fund is Rs. 300. It is administered by the Head Mistress, Lady Lewis Girls' High School, Sambalpur. The income should be spent on award of a silver or silver-plated medal to the best all-round girl promoted from Class VII to Class VIII of the said school.

(xii) Mrs. Hemlata Mansingha Prize Fund

This fund was created by a donation by Mrs. Hemlata Mansingha. The corpus of the fund is Rs. 300. The administrator of the fund is the Deputy Commissioner, Sambalpur. The income of the fund is utilised in awarding a medal to the best social worker of the Gangadhar Meher College, Sambalpur.

CHAPTER XVIII

PUBLIC LIFE AND VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICE ORGANISATIONS

220. ELECTIONS

(i) 1951-52 General Elections

During the time of the First General Elections (1951-52) there were 5 double member and 3 single member Assembly constituencies within the district as mentioned below—

(1) Padampur ..	Double member	(One seat was reserved for Scheduled Tribes)
(2) Sohela ..	Ditto	Ditto
(3) Jharsuguda-Rampella.	Ditto	Ditto
(4) Bamra ..	Ditto	Ditto
(5) Sambalpur-Rairakhol.	Ditto	(One seat was reserved for Scheduled Castes)
(6) Ambabhona-Mura.	Single member	
(7) Attabira ..	Ditto	
(8) Bargarh ..	Ditto	

There were 2 Parliamentary constituencies in the district, viz., Bargarh and Sambalpur. The Bargarh Parliamentary constituency was formed with Padampur, Bargarh, Attabira, Sohela, and Ambabhona-Mura Assembly constituencies and the Sambalpur Parliamentary constituency was formed with Sambalpur-Rairakhol, Jharsuguda-Rampella Assembly constituencies of Sambalpur district, Boudh Assembly constituency of Boudh-Khondmal district and Binka, and Birmaharajpur constituencies of Balangir district. Bamra Assembly constituency formed a part of Sundargarh Parliamentary constituency.

(ii) 1957 General Elections

For the purpose of the Second General Elections the constituencies of the district were rearranged. 7 Assembly constituencies were formed as mentioned below:—

(1) Sambalpur ..	Double member	(One seat was reserved for Scheduled Castes)

(2) Bargarh	..	Double member	(One seat was reserved for Scheduled Castes)
(3) Jharsuguda	..	Ditto	(One seat was reserved for Scheduled Tribes)
(4) Padampur	..	Ditto	Ditto
(5) Deogarh	..	Ditto	Ditto
(6) Katarbaga	..	Single member	
(7) Bhatli	..	Ditto	

The Parliamentary constituencies were delimited as mentioned below:—

Sambalpur, Hirakud (Jamda), Dhama, Burla, and Mahadebpali police-stations of Sambalpur subdivision and the whole of Bargarh subdivision formed a part of Sambalpur Parliamentary constituency. Rairakhol subdivision, Deogarh subdivision, Kuchinda subdivision (excluding Gobindpur P. S.) and Sasan and Jujomura police-stations of Sambalpur subdivision formed a part of Angul Parliamentary constituency. Rampella, Mura, Brajarajnagar, Jharsuguda and Laikera police-stations of Sambalpur subdivision, formed a part of Sundargarh Parliamentary constituency.

(*iii*) **1961 Mid-term Elections**

During 1961 the Assembly constituencies were delimited in accordance with the Parliamentary and Assembly constituencies order, 1961 and the double member constituencies were converted to that of single member as per "Two-member Constituencies Abolition Act, 1961" and the following constituencies were formed:—

(1) Melchhamunda	(7) Brajarajnagar		
(2) Bargarh	(8) Padampur	..	(Reserved for Scheduled Tribes)
(3) Bhatli	(9) Jharsuguda	..	Ditto
(4) Sambalpur	(10) Deogarh	..	Ditto
(5) Katarbaga	(11) Bijepur	..	(Reserved for Scheduled Castes)
(6) Rairakhol	(12) Attabira	..	Ditto

(iv) 1962 General Elections

For the purpose of election to the Lok Sabha, Sambalpur Parliamentary constituency was formed with Melchhamunda, Padampur, Bargarh, Bijepur, Bhatli, Sambalpur, and Attabira Assembly constituencies. Brajarajnagar, and Jharsuguda Assembly constituencies formed a part of Sundargarh Parliamentary constituency and Katarbaga, Deogarh and Rairakhol formed a part of Angul Parliamentary constituency.

(v) 1967 General Elections

For the purpose of General Elections during 1967 the number of Assembly constituencies remained the same as that of the Mid-term Elections, 1961. But they were rearranged as follows :—

(1) Padampur	(7) Deogarh	
(2) Melchhamunda	(8) Brajarajnagar	
(3) Bhatli	(9) Laikera ..	(Reserved for Scheduled Tribes.)
(4) Bargarh	(10) Kuchinda	Ditto
(5) Sambalpur	(11) Rairakhol ..	(Reserved for Scheduled Castes.)
(6) Jharsuguda	(12) Bijepur	Ditto

The Sambalpur Parliamentary constituency consisted of 7 Assembly constituencies, viz., Sambalpur, Melchhamunda, Bijepur, Bhatli, Bargarh, Sambalpur, and Brajarajnagar. Jharsuguda, Kuchinda, Rairakhol, and Deogarh Assembly constituencies formed a part of Angul Parliamentary constituency. Laikera was attached to Sundargarh Parliamentary constituency.

221. Political Parties and Organisations

Major All-India Political Parties having their organisation in the district are the Indian National Congress, the Swatantra Party of India, the Sanjukta Socialist Party, the Communist Party of India and the Praja Socialist Party. Among the local parties mention may be made of the Jana Congress Party which had been organised before the last General Elections. The Ganatantra Parishad was an important political party in the district till it merged with the Swantra Party of India in 1962. The Socialist Party has been divided into Praja Socialist Party and Sanjukta Socialist Party.

We get an idea of the relative strength of the political parties in the district at different periods from a study of the results of elections. During the 1st General Elections (1952) the Indian National Congress,

the Socialist Party, the Ganatantra Parishad and Independent candidates were contesting in the district. For the 13 Assembly seats there were altogether 52 candidates in the field. The Congress Party won six seats, the Ganatantra Parishad five, the Socialist Party and Independents got one seat each. 8 candidates contested the election to the House of the People. The Ganatantra Parishad won the seat from the Sambalpur constituency. An Independent candidate was elected from the Bargarh constituency.

In 1957 the Indian National Congress, the Communists Party of India, the Ganatantra Parishad and Independent candidates contested for the 12 Assembly seats and also for the election to the House of the People. Out of 12 Assembly seats, the Ganatantra Parishad won 9 seats. The Congress got 2 seats and the Communist Party secured one seat. All the three seats in the Lok Sabha were won by the Ganatantra Parishad.

In the Mid-term elections of 1961, there were about 50 candidates in the field. Out of 12 seats, Congress won 7, Ganatantra Parishad 3, Communist 1 and Independent 1.

During the 1962 General Elections to the Lok Sabha, the Socialies Party and the Ganatantra Parishad candidates were elected from the Sambalpur and the Sundargarh Parliamentary Constituencies respeci. tively. From the Angul constituency an Indenpendent candidate was elected uncontested.

In the last General Elections (1967), the Indian National Congress the Swatantra Party, the Communist Party of India, the Sanjukta Socialist Party, the Jana-Sanhga and the State recognised Jana Congress Party along with Independents including unrecognised parties contested the 12 Assembly seats. The Indian National Congress contested all the 12 Assembly seats, the Swatantra Party contested for 10 seats, the Sanjukta Socialist Party contested 7 seats, the Communist Party of India 6 seats, the Jana Congress 4 seats, the Jana Sangha 2 seats, besides the Independents who contested in 9 constituencies. The Swantantra Party won 6 seats, Congress won 4, the Jana Congress and Communist got one seat each. Out of a total number of 302,984 valid votes, cast, the following votes were polled by different political parties for the elections to the Assembly:

The Swatantra Party	..	101,008
The Indian National Congress	..	94,372
The Communist Party of India	..	28,571
The Sanjukta Socialist Party	..	31,046
The Jana Congress	..	13,685
The Jana Sangha	..	2,488
Independents (including unrecognised parties)		31,814

For the elections to the Lok Sabha six candidates contested from the Sambalpur Parliamentary Constituency, the Congress candidate was elected. Swatantra Party candidates won both the seats from Angul and Sundargarh constituencies defeating the Congress and Independent candidates. Valid votes polled by different political parties are given below :—

The Swatantra Party	..	226,820
The Indian National Congress	..	166,243
The Sanjukta Socialist Party	..	38,985
The Communist Party of India	..	32,689
The Jana Congress	..	9,553
Independents (including unrecognised parties)		85,030
Total number of valid votes polled	..	559,320

222. Newspapers and periodicals

An Oriya weekly newspaper called 'The Samalpur Hitaisini' started publication from Deogarh on the 30th May, 1889. It continued for about 34 years and ceased publication on the 3rd March, 1923. It was being published from the Jagannath Balhaba Press at Deogarh under the patronage of Raja Sir Basudev Sudhala Dev of Bamra. The Fraser Press, said to be the first printing press of the then district of Sambalpur was established in 1905. 'The Utkal Sevak', an Oriya weekly newspaper was being printed from this press. It was on circulation during 1914. The Oriya weekly newspaper 'Sadhana' came out in 1921. During 1936, another news weekly 'Jagarana' was in circulation. During 1958, two Oriya periodicals 'Prajasakti' and 'Subrati' were being published from this district. The 'Jeeban' and 'Bichhuati' were published in 1958 and 'Vaidyabandhu' a quarterly in 1960. 'The Khadyota' a fortnightly newspaper began its publication in 1962. The 'Squeeze' an English weekly appeared for sometime during 1964-65. But all the above mentioned newspapers and periodicals are no longer in circulation.

In respect of the newspapers and periodicals of recent origin we may mention the following few. All of them are existing except 'Katusatya' (published in 1968).

'The Panchamukhi' an Oriya weekly newspaper began its publication from Sambalpur in 1966. Another weekly 'Sata kahale Chhatiphate' started publication from Bargarh in 1967. 'The Agnisikha' a fortnightly

newspaper began its publication in 1968 from Sambalpur. The literary magazines and periodicals published from the district have been discussed in Chapter XV—Education and Culture.

Among Oriya dailies published outside the district, in circulation in this area are The Samaja, Prajatantra, Kalinga, Matrubhumi and Swarajya. Among English dailies The Times of India, The Amrit Bazar Patrika, The Hindustan Standard and The Statesman are in circulation.

223. Voluntary Social Service Organisation

(*i*) Lodha Bhai Orphanage

Late Seth Lodha Bhai Thaira had established the Lodha Bhai Orphanage in 1930 at Sambalpur to take care of Muslim orphan children. The institution provides free primary education, clothing and food, etc., to the children.

(*ii*) Gopaljee Math

It is one of the oldest Maths of the district established between 1617 A. D. to 1630 A. D. popularly know as Guru Math of Sambalpur royal family. The Math has started a Sanskrit tol and maintains the students reading in that institution. Besides, many poor students reading in different schools and colleges get financial help from the Math.

(*iii*) State Social Welfare Advisory Board

The activities of the State Social Welfare Advisory Board in the district consist in channeling the grants made by the Central Social Welfare Board to various voluntary organisations dealing with the problems of women, children, the aged and infirm, the mentally and physically handicapped, etc.

(*iv*) Child Welfare

A District Council for child welfare has been formed to undertake welfare work for children, adolescents, expectant and nursing mothers. Seven Balwadi Centres (Children's homes) and eight maternity centres have been established in the district. In Balwadis, children between the age-group of three to five years are admitted where they are nursed by Grama Sevikas. She teaches them good habits, makes them play and withdraws them from the mothers so that they can have some time for themselves. The Grama Sevikas are also to go round the villages allotted to them and teach stitching to the ladies. Dais have been appointed to attend to the antinatal, natal and post-natal cases.

(*v*) Feeding School Children

CARE which stands for Co-operative for American Relief. Every where started mid-day meals for school children in Sambalpur district in 1963. At present they are feeding 118,000 children in 973 schools. An investigation is being made by the Indian Council for Social Development to ascertain the all round effect of CARE feeding.

(*vi*) Mahila Samitis

There are 653 Mahila Samitis functioning in the district. These associations have been organised to develop economic and cultural activities among the women folk. Through these organisations they are trained in tailoring, handicrafts, poultry rearing, etc. Besides, they are also saving and helping small saving movement. They are trained in improved methods of cooking, fruit preservation, child-care family planning, etc. These Samitis assist women-folk in villages in introducing and installing smokeless chullahs, water-seal latrines, etc.

(*vii*) Yubak Sanghas and Village Leader's Training Camps

Members of Yubak Sanghas are expected to organise cultural programmes, village libraries and sports. They also help in introducing improved methods of cultivation, construction of village roads and look after the village sanitation. There were 38 Yubak Sanghas in the district during 1966-67 having 1,369 members.

Village Leader's Training Camps are organised from time to time to train village leaders in improved and modern cultivation, co-operation, social education, etc.

(*viii*) Adult Literacy :

Adult Literacy Centres have been organided in different places of the district. About 2,000 persons are made literate every year.

CHAPTER XIX

Places of Interest

224. Ambabhona

The village is situated in the north-west of Bargarh subdivision 25 miles (40 Kms.) north of Bargarh. A road from Bargarh runs through Bhatli and from there through Duari to Ambabhona. This village was a fortified place in the days of the Chauhan Rajas of Sambalpur and the remains of the old fort are still in existence. There is an old stone temple dedicated to Kedarnath Siva. It is one of the eight Siva temples constructed by Dakshin Rai, the Dewan of Raja Ajit Singh of Sambalpur. The Kedarnath temple is located inside a tank with beautiful forest background and it reveals high standard of Chauhan architecture. Ambabhona is the headquarters of a Panchayat Samiti as well as a police-station. It contains an M. E. School, a post office, a rest shed, and a dispensary. The population of the village was 954 in 1961.

225. Attabira

A village in Bargarh subdivision situated 22 miles (35 Kms.) south of Sambalpur on the National Highway No. 6 on the right bank of the Jhaun river. A road from this place runs to Remenda which is 10 miles (16 Kms.) to the south. Attabira is a notable rice producing centre. A large number of Telugu cultivators have recently settled in the village and its neighbourhood to reap the benefit of Hirakud canals. The Hirakud irrigation project has led to double and sometimes triple cropping and has considerably improved the material condition of the agricultural community of the area. The village is also a centre of business, the main items of trade being foodgrains and textile goods. There is a rice mill and a sugar mill, both running on co-operative basis. A weekly market is held here on Monday.

Attabira is the headquarters of a Panchayat Samiti and a police-station. There are two High Schools, one of which is meant for girls only. The village has a Rural Health Centre attached to the Veer Surendra Sai Medical College, Burla. The students and staff of the college attend the centre and look after the health and sanitary conditions of the locality. There are also an Inspection Bungalow managed by the Works Department, a Veterinary Dispensary, a Telephone Exchange and a Post Office. Dasahara festival is held here with great pomp which is popularly known as the Ranjita festival.

Population of the village according to the Census of 1961 was 2,347.

226. Badarama

A village situated on the National Highway No. 6 in Kuchinda subdivision 26 miles (42 Kms.) north-east of Sambalpur. It is located at the head of the Badarama Ghat of the National Highway. While driving through this Ghat in the night one may came across bisons, sambars, tigers and even elephants. Badarama is a centre of timber producing area. Offices of the Forest Corporation and the Forest Range Officer are located here. There is a well-furnished Forest Rest House. A big market is held here on every Thursday and is noted for forest produce. The Ushakothi game sanctuary is close to the village Badarama (*see* "Ushakothi"). The population of the village according to 1961 Census was 406.

227. Barakot

A village situated on the left bank of the river Brahmani, 20 miles (32 Kms.) to the east of Deogarh. It is served by the National High way No. 6 and the Brahmani has been bridged close to this village. It is also connected by road with the steel town of Rourkela.

Barakot was formerly the headquarters of the ex-State of Bamra. But later, Deogarh became the headquarters. Before merger of the State, Barakot was the headquarters of a Tahasil. The village has a police-station, a dispensary, an agricultural farm, a veterinary dispensary, Forest Range Office and a High School. Its population according to 1961 Census was 635.

228. Bamra (Gobindpur)

A railway station on the Nagpur-Howrah line. The village close to the station is known as Gobindpur which is connected with Deogarh by a good road of 64 miles (103 Kms.). It is also connected by roads with Rourkela, Sundargarh, and Kuchinda. The place is noted for trade in timber, bamboo, and charcoal. Timber is mostly required for railway sleepers and also number of saw mills are found in the village. There is also a Match factory, a Biscuit factory and a sisal hemp research centre. A weekly market is held on every Monday. Gobindpur is the headquarters of a Panchayat Samiti and has the offices of the Regional Co-operative Marketing Societies and of Divisional Forest Officer. There is a High School. An agricultural farm and a veterinary dispensary are also located there. The place is noted for the Makara Jatra festival which is usually held in the middle of January. The population of the village (Gobindpur) according to 1961 Census was 2,857.

229. Bargarh

Situated on the left bank of the Jira river, Bargarh is the headquarters of the Subdivision of the same name. The town is on the National Highway No. 6, 37 miles (59 Km.) to the west of Sambalpur. It is also

served by the D. B. K. railway running from Jharsuguda to Titlagark. The Bargarh railway station is about two miles off the town. A meter gauge railway line connects Bargarh with the lime-stone quarry at Dungri. The main Hirakud Canal passes through the town and is known as the Bargarh Canal.

The original name of the place was Baghar Kota as known from an inscription of the 11th century A. D. It was called Bargarh probably from the time of Balaram Dev, the first Chauhan Raja of Sambalpur, who made it for some time his headquarters and constructed a big fort for its protection. Narayan Singh, the last Chauhan Raja, granted this place in maufi (free hold) to two Brahmin brothers Krushna Das and Narayan Das, sons of Baluki Das who was killed in action by the Gond rebels led by Bandya Ray and Mohapatra Ray. The grant is popularly known as the Sirkata grant.

The town of Bargarh is managed by a municipality. It has a first grade college established in 1960 mostly by financial contribution of the Grama Panchayats of the subdivision for which it is known as the Panchayat College. Bargarh is also a Panchayat Samiti headquarters and contains some important offices like those of the Sub-Collector, Regional Marketing Officer, Commercial Tax Officer, Assistant Registrar of Co-operative Societies, Central Co-operative Bank (Sambalpur), Assistant Director of Textiles, District Agricultural Officer, District Inspector of Schools, Executive Engineer (Canals Division), Executive Engineer (Electrical Construction Division), and Telephone Exchange. There are also a Sub-Jail, a hospital and a veterinary hospital.

The place is a flourishing centre of trade. A large number of merchants belonging to the Marwari community reside in the heart of the town. It is notable for grain trade in the district and is also an important centre of hand-loom industry. There is an agricultural farm. A weekly bazar is held here every Friday and it is the biggest of its kind in the district. There are two High Schools, one for boys and another for girls, and a Secondary (teachers) Training School.

The neighbouring areas of Bargarh are being heavily industrialised. Two miles (3 Kms.) to the north of the town, close to the village Khaliapali, has been built a big cement factory named as Hira Cement Factory, which went into production in 1968. It is managed by the Industrial Development Corporation and the product is branded as the IDCOL Cement. Three miles to the east of the town near the village Tora, a spinning Mill has come into operation, and near the Bargarh railway station the foundation stone of a Co-operative Sugar Milk has been laid by Maharaja Sir R. N. Singh Deo, Chief Minister of Orissa, on the 10th December, 1969.

The town has an Inspection Bungalow managed by the Works Department and a well-furnished Rest House. The Industrial Development Corporation has one guest house here. Formerly there was a Sarai house called the Moberly Sarai managed by the District Council. But it is no longer in existence. There is, however, a Dharmasala for the common people. Dhanujatra, held in January, is an important festival of the place. Population of the town according to the Census of 1961 was 15,375.

230. Barpali

The village is located 11 miles (19 km.) south of Bargarh on the State Highway No. 2 running from Bargarh to Borigumma. An undeveloped road from Sohela to Binka in Balangir district also passes by this village. It is also served by the D. B. K. Railway which runs from Sambalpur to Titlagarh.

Barpali was the headquarters of a feudal estate (since abolished extending over 98 square miles (254 sq. km.). It dated back to the reign of Baliar Singh, the fifth Raja of Sambalpur, who assigned it as a maintenance grant to his second son Bikram Singh. Narayan Singh, the last Raja of Sambalpur, was a descendant of Bikram Singh. The estate was taken under the management of the Court of Wards after the death of its last proprietor Bir Suryodaya Singh in 1927. The property of the estate was subsequently partitioned among three claimants--the Raja of Sonepur, the Maufidar of Jharsuguda and the Maufidar of Barpali—by a decree of compromise of the Supreme Court in 1964.

The village has a large number of temples, oldest among which are the temple of Samaleswari built by Bikram Singh, and the temple of Jagannath built by Hrudaya Sai, the son of Bikram Singh. The temple of Samaleswari with its beautiful tapering tower displays the style of Chauhan architecture, while the Jagannath temple is built in the Orissan style.

The village is inhabited largely by weavers, and gold and silver smiths. It is noted for textile, and bell-metal industries. It has also earned reputation for *tassar* weaving industry which is at present dying out.

The American Friends Service Committee spent 10 years (from 1951 to 1961) at Barpali for village service. They were assisted by a research team from the University of Massachusetts Amherst on achievement motivation research. Dr. Thomas M. Fraser, Junior, has prepared a report of his achievement motivation research at Barpali and neighbouring villages. An extract of the same is given in the next page.

"Almost all of the trainees were young men. The average age of all men trained was twenty-four, and many were only in their late teens. It had been hoped by Barpali Village Service that a fair number of older men, established in their villages either as craftsmen or cultivators, could have been drawn into the programme to learn new techniques and broader applications of their skills. Most of the trainees were men who lacked the mature responsibilities of established villagers towards their families and communities. Further more, it was apparent from the application forms submitted for training and from interviewing former trainees, that a considerable number of them saw in the training programme a means of enhancing their standing in the community or even of breaking away from the village altogether. In large part they viewed the training as vocationally oriented, potentially capable of being put to use in a trade or at least a form of training which *per se* would ensure the individual a somewhat higher status in his village. The programme itself however, had been specifically designed to limit the technical training to a point below that required for an individual to enter easily into urban trade or industry, and even to discourage vocational specialization in the rural village. Barpali Village Service hoped this limitation would make mechanical skills and knowledge generally available in the villages by means of trainees returning to their former occupations and community positions. However, because of the attitudes which many of the trainees brought with them and their reasons for learning as a means of *separating* themselves from the community or their former position in it, the purpose of this limitation may not have been fully attained."

This summary has stood the test of experience. It is nearly 10 years since the Barpali Service Committee left. There is at present no indication that the village community of Barpali and its neighbourhood have learnt any thing from 10 years' effort of American Friends. The friends themselves did considerable research on improving sanitation and water-supply in villages. The Barpali latrine invented by them has been taken up by Community Development Blocks. It is becoming popular. They also invented a simple and efficient pump for wells. It has not, however, caught public imagination, even though Community Development Blocks are trying to propagate it. See also Appendix I to this chapter.

The village contains more than a dozen of big tanks which are mostly used for bathing purposes. One of the main branches of the Hirakud canals runs through the village and irrigates the cultivable lands of the neighbouring areas.

Barpali is the birth place of the famous poet Gangadhar Meher. The premier college in Sambalpur town has been named after him. A small and beautiful park is named after Lal Nrupa Raj Singh, one of the

enlightened Zamindars of Barpali. The park was opened in 1933 by Shri Nilamani Senapati, I. C. S., the then Deputy Commissioner of Sambalpur.

The village is the headquarters of a Panchayat Samiti and a police-station. It contains two High Schools one of which is for girls, a Primary Health Centre, a veterinary dispensary and an Inspection Bungalow maintained by the Works Department. There are a privately managed saw mill, and a seed multiplication farm maintained by the Agriculture Department. An industrial project has been undertaken here by the Small Industries Corporation of Orissa. The village has got facilities of electricity. Tap water system is shortly being introduced. A weekly market sits on Monday. The population of the village according to 1961 Census was 6,415.

231. Belpahar

A place of industrial importance, famous for the Refractory Plan set up by the Tata Iron & Steel Co. (For details see Chapter V). The company has an air-strip here. Belpahar is also a railway station on the Bombay-Howrah section of South Eastern Railway.

The place contains a hospital, a high school, a rest shed, and a guest house of the Refractory.

Population, as recorded in 1961 Census (for Samda village), was 2,573. A weekly market sits at Samda on Saturday.

232. Bhatli

A village in the Bargarh subdivision, 12 miles (19 Kms.) north of Bargarh on the Bargarh-Ambabhona Road. It is an old village with large Brahmin and Kulta population. There is a beautiful modern temple dedicated to Dadhi Vamana Vishnu. Inside the temple there are beautiful wall paintings depicting Puranic stories.

It is said that one Paramananda Sahu of village Gangpur in modern Sundargarh district came to Bhatli with his family in 1900, the year of the great famine. His family consisted of himself, his wife, his son and the daughter-in-law. He also brought with him his family deity Dadhi Vamana from Gangpur and his daughter-in-law Kamala was worshipping the God. Paramananda soon became popular in Bhatli and subsequently became the Behera (Headman) of the village. As Behera he was in charge of the Sadabrata land which had been donated by generous persons for entertainment of pilgrims, Sanyasis and guests coming to the village. But the land did not produce good crops for some years owing to famine conditions and Paramananda also was unable to maintain his family as he did not have sufficient means of living. During the days of privation once a large band of wandering monks came to

Bhatli and demanded food from Paramananda. Both Paramananda and his wife could not decide what to do and how to satisfy the honoured guests of the village. Paramananda was greatly upset and he left home chanting the name of Dadhi Vamana with the hope of collecting food from some generous persons.

It is said that soon after Paramananda left the place some proxy of his came to the house and handed over a key to his wife saying that there was some food materials in the room where they used to store paddy. He told her to entertain the guests with that and hurriedly left the place saying that he will be coming back soon. The wife of Paramananda opened the room and was astonished to see different kinds of food inside. After some time Paramananda came back home greatly disappointed as he failed to arrange food for the revered guests. But he learnt from his wife that the monks were all satisfied with the rich food that was stored in the room meant for storing paddy and she narrated how he himself handed over the key of the room to her. Paramananda could not hold tears and weeping like a baby fell at the feet of his wife syaing— "You are a fortuante lady, you could see God Dadhi Vamana."

A few days after that, the thatched hut in which the wooden image of god Dadhi Vamana was enshrined cought fire. The fire was so terrific that all hopes of saving the divine idol were given up. But Kamala the daughter-in-law of Paramananda was determined to save her beloved God. She did not listen to the advice of others and without caring for her own life rushed inside the shrine wherefrom she never returned. Strangely enough, no remains of Kamala nor of the God could be found from the ashes and the villagers believed that Kamala completely merged with the divinity. Paramananda and his wife were overwhelmed with grief. In the night Paramananda had a strange dream. God Dadhi Vamana appeared before him in the dream and told him that a log of wood will be found next morning floating in the tank of the village which is called Chakra Bandha. His image should be newly carved out of that wood and be installed in a newly built stone temple in the village.

Next morning, the people of Bhatli and neighbouring villages assembled at the Chakra Bandha in large number. They all witnessed with wonder the sacred log of wood floating towards Paramananda who with tears rolling down his face entered into neck-deep of water and embracing the wood exclaimed, "My Dadhi Vamana, My Kamala......".

The images of both Dadhi Vamana and Kamala were beautifully carved out. Donations came unasked for and people vied with one another to offer free and voluntary labour for construction of the sky scraping temple. Both the images were installed in the temple with great pomp and ceremony.

Cooked rice is not offered to God Dadhi Vamana. He and Kamala enjoy Balbhog only.

The village is the headquarters of a Panchayat Samiti. It has a High School, a Veterinary Dispensary and a Police-station. A weekly market sits on Monday. Its population, according to 1961 Census was 1,931.

233. Bheran (Bheden)

A village in Bargarh Subdivision, situated 18 miles (29 Kms.) to the east of Bargarh close to the confluence of the Danta and the Jira rivers. The village is surrounded on three sides by these two rivers and is approachable from Bargarh by the canal road. Bheran was formerly the headquaters of an estate extending over 33 sq. miles and the Zamindar belonged to the Gond family. It is said that the Chiefship of Bheran was established even before the coming of the Chauhan Rajputs to Sambalpur. In the rebellion of Surendra Sai, the Zamindar revolted and was killed in action with the British troops. The other members of the family surrendered under the amnesty. The last Zamindar of Bheran was Brukodar Singh whose father Balaram Singh married in the Zamindar's family of Kudabaga, the Zamindar of which died without a male heir and that Zamindari came under the possession of Bheran.

The village Bheran is also known as Bisaikela. It is notable for the textile industry and the weavers excel in tie and dye work. Tassar weaving which was once a profitable industry is fast declining. It is now a notable centre of trade in hides.

The village has a fairly old temple of Dadhi Vamana Vishnu. The Car Festival of God Dadhi Vamana is observed in the month of Ashadh with great pomp and ceremony. Besides this, Rama Navami and Sivaratri festivals are also observed in the local Ramji and Siva temples respectively.

Bheran is a Panchayat Samiti headquarters, and it has a High School, a Police-Station, Veterinary Dispensary, and a Primary Health Centre. A weekly market sits on Saturday. The population of the village according to 1961 Census was 2,072.

234. Bhojpur

A village in Kuchinda subdivision situated 25 miles (40 Kms.) to the west of Deogarh. A weekly market is held here on Sunday and is noted for forest produce. There is an Ashram School and a Veterinary Dispensary in the village. Its population, according to 1961 Census was 921.

235. Bijepur

A village in Padampur subdivision, 17 miles (26 Kms.) south-west of Bargarh. It was the headqeaters of an ex-Zamindari known as Uttal-Baisi. It is said that formerly there were two Gond Zamindaris, one of which was called Uttal with headquaters at Talpadar, while the other was called Baisi with headquaters at Bijepur. In the village Talpadar there are remains of an old fort called Uttal fort. The two Zamindaris were subsequently combined into one called Uttal-Baisi or Bijepur Zamindari by Maharaja Sai, the Raja of Sambalpur, who in 1821 made a grant of it to one Gopi Kulta for his loyal service. The grant was confirmed by the British Government in 1863 when the title of Gartia was conferred on its Chief and a quit rent of Rs. 350 was fixed for a term of forty years. In 1903 when the term expired, a feudal tribute was fixed at Rs. 3,305. The net income of the Zamindari was Rs. 13,769.

The village Bijepur is inhabited mainly by cultivators and weavers It is notable for napkins and bed-sheets manufactured by local weavers It is the headquarters of a Panchayat Samiti and a Police-Station. There is a big tank called Sagar used for bathing purpose. The village has a High School, a dispensary, and a veterinary dispensary. A weekly market sits on Sunday. Its population, according to 1961 Census was 2,650.

236. Borasambar

A village in Padampur subdivision 8 miles (13 Kms.) south-west of Padampur. It is picturesquely located at the foot of the Gandhamardan hills and is inhabited mainly by Binjhals. It was formerly the headquarters of the Borasambar Zamindari extending over 841 square miles (2,178 sq. Kms.) and consisting of 476 villages. Later, the headquarters of the Zamindari shifted to Padampur. The Zamindar belongs to the Binjhal family and is called Pat-Bariha. According to tradition, the founders of the family were twelve archer brothers, who one day were out hunting a hare and boar of changing colour. While engaged in the chase, their arrows miraculously flew as far as Puri and stuck in the great door of Jagannath temple. The Raja of Puri endeavoured in vain to pull them out, and even the royal elephants failed to make them move. Only the twelve brothers could extract them, and thereupon the Raja, admiring their strength, made them rulers of this forest tract of Dandakaranya.

The Chiefs of Borasambar gradually grew in power and expanded at the cost of Phuljhar and Patna territories and subsequently Borasambar was considered worthy of being included in the cluster of States known as the 18 Garjats.

The Zamindar of Borasambar enjoyed the right of affixing the *ticca* to the Maharajas of Patna on their accession. The legend accounting for this practice is as follows:—

By the time the Sultan of Delhi conquered Rajputana a queen of one of the Rajput houses fled away to save her honour after her husband was killed and subsequently reached Borasambar where she gave birth to a son. The Binjhal Chief of Borasambar took pity on the mother and the child, and gave them shelter. Patna was at that time a dependency of Borasambar, and was being ruled by a chief elected by a council of eight Mallicks. These Malliks were jealous of their power and had no intention of letting any man occupy the throne for any time. Accordingly, whenever they elected a chief, they took him to the temple of Patneswari (locally called Patnisri) and asked him to do obeisance to the deity. No sooner had he prostrated himself than he was beheaded by the Malliks, who pretended that the deity considered him unfit to sit on the throne and therefore devoured him. The result was that every day a man was elected Chief and then killed the same day.

A Brahmin of Patna on his visit to Borasambar learnt that the Chief had given shelter to a Chauhan princess and her son. On his request, the Borasambar Chief allowed him to take the mother and the son to Patna and to keep in his house. After sometime the Brahmin was elected by the Malliks to be the Chief of Patna. Being afraid of the inevitable death he sent the Chauhan boy who was then attaining manhood, as a substitute. The boy was duly elected and taken to the temple by the Malliks. The latter, as usual, asked him to prostrate himself before the deity, but he told the Malliks to do so first. When they were prostrating themselves, he killed them all with his sword and came out of the temple alive. As it became clear from this that he was approved by the deity, the people hailed him as their ruler and thus he became the first Chauhan Raja of Patna. The Binjhal Chief of Borasambar, the overlord of Patna, sanctioned his claim to the principality, came to Patna, and put the *ticca* of a Raja on his forehead. Till lately, each of his descendants had exercised the same right, also placing a *Pagri* or *Pat* of silk on the head of the Raja of Patna at the time of accession.

In the village Borasambar there is an old temple of Patneswari constructed of rough stone and mortar. The population of the village according to 1961 Census was 120.

237. Brajarajnagar

An industrial town, situated on the Howrah-Bombay line of South Eastern Railway. The place has its importance for the Orient Paper Mills (for details of this factory, see Chapter V).

The municipal administration of the town is run by a Notified Area Council. The Ib river Colliery, Rampur-Himgir Colliery and Orient Colliery are located here. There are two high schools

(including one for girls), a police-station, a hospital, a veterinary stockman centre, an inspection bungalow, a telephone exchange, and a cinema house. A weekly market sits here on Sunday.

Population, according to 1961 Census, was 16,196. It is the third biggest town of the district.

238. Burkel (Barlkel)

A village in Padampur subdivision situated three miles (5 Kms) to the west of Padampur town close to the Gandhamardan hills. It has two beautiful temples, one dedicated to Vishnu and the other to Siva. On the Siva temple, Asokan lion figures are found as decorative element. Near this temple, there is a small shrine of Bhairava where by the side of the deity are placed seven pieces of crystal. One of these pieces displays golden hue probably due to prismatic action which local people believe to be the emanation of Durga, the consort of Bhairava. The village is inhabited mainly by Savaras and Binjhals. The priest of the Siva temple is a Mali by caste and he claims to be a member of the Gandhamalis or Thanapatis. The Vishnu temple has a Brahmin priest. There is an M. E. School, a Sanskrit Tol, and an agricultural farm in the village. The weekly market sits on every Wednesday. Its population according to 1961 Census was 1,521.

239. Burla

Nine miles (14 Kms.) to the south-west of Sambalpur, the township of Burla developed in course of construction of the Hirakud Dam. It is called Burla after the name of a small neighbouring village. It started as a temporary colony of the engineers and officers engaged in the work of construction of the dam. Even at present, Burla is mainly a town of Government offices and the officials, the percentage of civil population being very small. The main offices are those of the Hirakud division of the Irrigation Department and of the State Electricity Board. The office of the Burla Construction Division of the Works Department has now shifted from Hirakud to Burla because of the construction of Sambalpur University Campus which is undertaken close to this town. The Veer Surendra Sai Medical College, managed by the Government of Orissa, and the University College of Engineering, managed by Sambalpur University, occupy major portion of the township. Foundation has also been laid for the construction of Sambalpur University Campus in the vicinity of the town. There is a High School, a Police Station and the office of the Notified Area Council. The power canal flowing from the Hirakud Dam divides Burla into two parts which are linked by a small and beautiful bridge. There is a small bazar catering to the needs of the people. There is a hospital attached to the Medical College and a Veterinary Dispensary.

Burla has three beautiful rest houses. The best one is the Ashoka Nivas, picturesquely located at the foot of the Jawahar Minar of the Hirakud Dam, and the next best, named as the First Class Rest House, is located close to the Medical College. These two rest houses are under the control of the Irrigation Department. The third rest house is under the control of the State Electricity Board.

The population of Burla according to the Census of 1961 was 10,230.

240. Charmal

A village in Rairakhol subdivision 10 miles (16 Km.) to the west of Rampur (Rairakhol). It is situated on the National Highway No. 42 and has an Inspection Bungalow managed by the Works Department. It has a Police Station, a veterinary stockman centre, and a Forest Range Office. The village is noted for forest produce particularly, Kendu leaves Its population according to 1961 Census was 528.

Closeby in the Suani hill, the image of goddess Suani and several other images are found. According to local legend, whomsoever the goddess married, died one after another. At last her father requested Yudhisthira, who had come to that country during the period of his exile, to marry her. Yudhisthira married her. But the Pandavas did not take her to their home as they were in exile and left her there with the consolation that she would be taken with them when they returned from exile. Now the people worship the image of goddess Suani. A big fair takes place in the month of Bhadraba (August-September) every year.

241. Chiplima

A village situated on the right bank of the Mahanadi 23 miles (37Km.) to the south of Sambalpur town. It is mostly inhabited by the fishermen who were formerly earning their living by rowing boats from Sambalpur to different towns and villages down the river Mahanadi. The village deity Ghantlei is very popular in the neighbouring area. The devotees who come to worship her usually tie bells outside her shrine which make tinkling sound in the wind.

Near Chiplima is the village Chaurpur on the right bank of the Mahanadi which is said to be the seat of Balaramdeva, the first Chauhan Raja of Sambalpur, before his coming to Sambalpur town.

Chiplima was for sometime noted for the Kalyan Ashram founded by the late Dr. Janardan Pujari in 1944. The Ashram was shifted in 1949 to Baunsara situated on the other side of the Mahanadi in consequence of the construction of the hydro-electric project near the village.

Chiplima is at present well known for the hydro-electric project which was inaugurated by the Government of Orissa on the 14th September, 1963. The total expenditure of the Project is about Rs. 14·32 crores. A natural fall of about 80 feet (24·38 m.) in height in the Mahanadi is made use of for developing power. The State Live-stock Breeding Farm and an agricultural farm are located here. Its population according to 1961 Census, was 4,596.

242. Debrigarh

A peak in the Barapahar hills in Bargarh subdivision, having a height of 2,267 feet (691 m.) This used to be a stronghold of the Rajas of Sambalpur and according to local tradition, it was here that the Marathas under Chandaji Bhonsla captured Raja Jayant Singh and his son Maharaj Sai. It was a noted rebel stronghold during the revolt of Balbhadra Dao, the Gond Zamindar of Lakhanpur, who was killed here. Mohapatra Ray and Bandya Rai also sought shelter here about 130 years ago (i. e., about 1840) after murdering Baluki Das, the muafidar of Bargarh, and Surendra Sai was captured here in 1864. The place is 20 miles (32 kms.) north of Bargarh, from which place a cart-track leads to the foot of the hill, thence one has to climb the hill for 3 miles(5 kms.). There is, or rather was, a small village close by. As it has been acquired by Government and included in the forest reserve, its inhabitants have left it. Two miles north of the village is a large cave in the hill-side called Barabakhra, which is said to be capable of holding 400 men. There is a wild life sanctuary, details of which are given in Chapter I. The village contained a population of 109 in 1961.

243. Deogarh

It was the capital town of the ex-State of Bamra (Bamanda) and is at present the headquaters of the Deogarh subdivision. It is located 60 miles (97 kms.) to the east of Sambalpur town on the National Highway No. 6. The Bamra Railway Station on the Nagpur-Howrah section of the South-East Railway is at a distance of 64 miles (103 kms.) from this town. Deogarh is attractively situated with the background of wooded hills and waterfalls. The Pradhanpat hill with its picturesque falls offers a rare scenic beauty. Two beautiful guest houses named Basanta Nivas and Lalita Basanta were constructed on the hill by the former Rajas of Bamra. They are at present under the management of the Works Department. There are two waterfalls in the Pradhanpat range of hills, from one of which hydro-electric power is generated and the other serves as the source of water supply to the town. There is a newly constructed Dharmasala in the town and a Revenue rest house under the management of the Subdivisional Officer. The palace of the ex-Rajas of Bamra is located in the town, and with no compound walls it presents a simple and sober look. There are a number of temples in the town notable among which are of Gopinath, Jagannath and Gokarneswara.

The late Raja Sachidananda Tribhuvan Dev, who was looking after all-round development of the town, organised the Municipality of Deogarh. The Municipality is now serving well although it does not seem to have sufficient funds. It supplies filtered water and electricity to the town people. The town has a college with provision in both science and humanities, and two High Schools one of which is meant for girls. There is a public library named after the late Raja Sachidananda Tribhuvan Dev. It is now under the managemnt of the Home (Public Relations) Department. The library is one of the largest in Orissa and was once famous in Orissa due to large number of books and documents preserved in it. There are a hospital, a sub-jail, a veterinary dispensary and a telephone exchange.

There are various Government offices in the town. Important among them are the offices of the Subdivisional Officer, Munsif, Divisional Forest Officer and the District Inspector of Schools. There is a daily market.

The population of the town according to 1961 Census, was 6,830.

244. **Dhama**

A village in the Sambalpur Subdivision, situated on the left bank of Mahanadi 15 miles (24 (kms.) south of Sambalpur on the Sambalpur-Sonepur road. The old Sonepur road crossed the Mahanadi near the village, but that road has now been abandoned. Dhama has an Inspection Bungalow managed by the Works Department and about 5 miles (8 kms.) south, at Larasara there is a beautiful Forest Bungalow. A weekly bazar is held in the village every Saturday which is noted for trade in rice, *gur* and forest produce. The village has a High School, a Post Office, a Veterinary dispensary and a Police Station. Population according to the Census of 1961, was 1,425.

245. **Diptipur**

A village in Padampur Subdivision 8 miles (13 kms.) to the east of Padampur on the Sohela-Padampur road. It is noted for the missionary activities of the Utkal Christian Council which started work here in 1956. The acitvities of the Mission are divided into three wings—health, education and agriculture. A dispensary was started in 1957 which became a hospital with 16 beds in 1958. The Mission is running one M. E. School in the village and also attempting adult education. They are helping the cultivators to irrigate lands by hand pumps.

246. **Dungri**

A place in Ambabhona Police Station of Bargarh Subdivision, situated 36 miles (58 kms.) to the north of Bargarh town—connected by good motorable all-weather road. In 1956, a limestone quarry was

opened here by the Orissa Mining Corporation, where over 1,200 labourers were being employed in 1968. The Hira Cement Factory at Bargarh gets its supply of limestone ores from this quarry. For carrying these ores a metre-gauge rail line (53 km.) has been constructed from Dungri to Bargarh. The quarry-township, which is growing, has been built entirely by the Corporation within its lease-hold area. The Tamdei Refugee Camp is only three miles from Dungri.

The place contains a guest house maintained by the Corporation, an M. E. School, a Dispensary, and a Post office. A weekly market sits here on Saturday. Population of the place according to 1961 Census was 888.

247. Gaisama

A village in Bargarh Subdivision 8 miles (13 kms.) south east of Bargarh. Picturesquely situated on the bank of the Jira river, it is noted for the temple of Balunkeswar Siva who is regarded as one of the eight Sambhus in the district. The temple was built by Dakshin Rai, the Dewan of Raja Ajit Singh (1725 1766), although tradition assigns it to Raja Abhaya Singh (1766 -78). An interesting legend which has developed regarding the origin of the village Gaisama and the construction of the Siva temple is presented below.

It is said that one Kulta village headman of the ex-Patna State during the rule of Raja Rai Sing had two sons named Kuvera Sahu and Amar Sahu, and a beautiful daughter. An influential noble of the royal family wanted the hands of the girl and the old headman (whose name is not presented) apprehending trouble left the territory of Patna in a cloudy night with his family and belongings loaded in one hundred carts. About a thousand cows and bullocks came with the party. They crossed the river Ong (Ang) early next morning and reached the territory of Sambalpur. Standing on the northern bank of this river on the soil of Sambalpur, the old man heaved a sigh of relief and pointing his right hand towards the rising sun took an oath that in future he and his descendants would never cross the river Ong. The party proceeded further towards the north and passing through Barpali crossed the river Jira on the third day of their march and spent the night on the northern bank of that river. That night the old man had a strange dream. A goddess appeared before him in the dream and told him not to proceed any further and to settle there with the lands as far as his cows and bullocks were then taking rest. As a result of that a new settlement started on the spots and since the limits of it were determined by the presence of the cows it was popularly called "Gaisima" which later on came to be known as Gaisama. Within a short period the villagers excavated thirteen tanks round about the village and lived peacefully cultivating the fertile fields.

After about a year in one moonlit night the headman got the news from his attendants that a band of armed soldiers were coming towards the village. He could at once know the significance of the coming of the soldiers to his village. It was the wicked noble of Patna who had sent the band of soldiers to forcibly take away the young daughter of the headman from the new village Gaisama. He could not know what to do in the midst of that danger and prayed the village goddess to save the prestige of the family. By the time he lost all hope, an untouchable old woman of the Ganda caste suddenly came inside the house through back door and asked the headman to send the girl to her small hut where she could keep her concealed inside some big earthen pot. The soldiers rushed into the village and made a thorough search for the young girl. But without finding any trace of her they all left the village in haste after about an hour. The headman and his family fell at the feet of the untouchable old woman expressing gratitude but she was so excited with joy because of her performance that she fell down dead before all the villagers. The inhabitants of Gaisama cherish till to day the memory of the old Ganda woman who has been deified and receives Puja from them on ceremonial occasions.

A few years after that, one day Raja Abhaya Singh of Sambalpur had his camp near the village on his way to Patnagarh. After his bath, he visited the shrine of Siva which was close to his camp. The Thanapati priest became nervous as he did not expect the Raja at that hour in the shrine. As there was then no flowers near at hand he took the flower which he had on his ear and presented it to the Raja. The Raja, however, noticed a hair in the flower and asked what it meant. The priest out of fear told him that it was the hair of Siva. Raja Abhaya Singh became very angry at the explanation of the priest and told him that he would see the image of the god early next morning before leaving the village and if no hair would be found on His head the priest would be severely punished. The poor priest prayed to Lord Siva the whole night to save him from the wrath of the Raja. Next morning when the Raja came to the shrine he actually found hair growing on the head of the image of Siva. Suspecting it to be false hair kept by the shrewd priest he pulled one with his hand. Suddenly there came out a stream of milk from the root of the hair and the Raja was astonished at the miraculous power of the god. He at once ordered that a stone temple was to be built in honour of the god who was named as Balunkeswara Siva from that day.

Population of the village according to the Census of 1961 was 1,744.

248. **Galsilat**

A village in Padampur Subdivision, situated about 12 miles (19 Kms.) from Padampur. Headquarters of a Panchayat Samiti and police station, it contains a high school, a verterinary dispensary, a dispensary and a rest shed. The primary health centre is located at Talpali.

Population at the 1961 Census was 1,182.

249. **Ganiapali**

A village in Padampur Subdivision, situated on the river Ong (Ang), 6 miles (10 Kms.) south of Melchhamunda. Contains some old relics. There are ruins of an ancient temple in front of the village school. Two Buddha images have been discovered there. One such image with a hooded-serpent is worshipped by local people as a goddess. Population, according to 1961 Census, was 1,118.

250. **Gheus**

A village in Padampur Subdivision, situated on the Sohela-Padampur road, 22 miles (35Kms.) from Padampur and 26 miles (42 Km.) from Bargarh (via Sohela). This was formerly a zamindari extending over 40 sq. miles (104 sq.Kms.) in Bargarh Subdivision. Originally it was an appanage of the Borasambar Zamindari and was subsequently created by partition or assignment. The Zamindars were Binjhals by caste. Some of them were involved in the insurrection led by Surendra Sai. One of the family was sentenced to transportation for life in 1864 and died while undergoing sentence. His son remained in outlawry for several years after the amnesty was proclaimed, but was captured in 1865 and hanged for murder. The *takoli* paid by the zamindar was Rs. 1,960 and his net income was Rs. 6,537.

The place is well connected by road. It contains a high school, a dispensary and a post office. A weekly market sits here on Thursday. Population in 1961 was 1,766.

251. **Hatibari**

A village in Jujomura police-station of Sambalpur Subdivision, situated amidst forests about 15 miles (24Kms.) to the south of Sambalpur. Connected with National Highway No. 42 (Cuttack-Sambalpur road) near Mundher by another branch road about 3 miles in length. The place has its importance for the leper home started here by late Dr. Isaac Santra, a reputed social worker, whom Government of India awarded the decoration of 'Padmasree' for his outstanding social service.

There are a veterinary stockman centre and a post office. Population, according to 1961 Census was 664.

252. **Hirakud**

A small island lying between two branches of river Mahanadi about 6 miles (10 Kms.) north of Sambalpur. Its area was 828 acres (335 hectares) but the population was very scanty, only 70 inhabitants being returned at the 1931 Census. The name means the diamond island, diamond mining being formerly carried on by a class of people called Jharas, for whose maintenace, it is said, the revenue of about 30 villages on either bank of the river Mahanadi was assigned by the former Rajas of Sambalpur. These people worked during the cold and hot weather, when the water was low. The work was done in the bed of the river in either branch, and some large and valuable diamonds are known to have been found in the right branch. Diwan Bahadur Kastur Chand of Kampti was granted a license to prospect. for diamonds and other precious stones.

Situated about 6 miles (10. Kms.) north of Sambalpur, Hirakud is now a place of great importance. The Hirakud Dam is a multi-purpose project and is the largest earth dam in the world. The foundation of the project was laid on the 15th March 1946 by Sir Hawthorne Lewis, the then Governor of Orissa. It has a reservoir of 6·6 million acre-feet with irrigation potential for 6·72 lakh acres (2·72 lakh hectares) both in Khariff and Rabi seasons. Generators at the Dam and in the subsidiary power houses have an installed capacity of 252,500 Kw. of power. Stretching 3 miles (5 Kms.) across the river bank the main dam is a composite dam of earth, masonry and concrete. Nearly 13 miles (21Kms.) long earth dyke has been built on either side to close the gap in the surrounding hills. The dam has a maximum height of 200 feet at the power-house site and the earth dam is 190 feet high at the deep channel section. Out of the storage capacity of 6·6 million acre-feet of water in the reservoir, 1·88 million acre-feet is dead storage and the balance prove sufficient for flood control and live storage for irrigation and power generation. Canals take off from either side of the dam. The one on the right side has irrigation potential of 3,80,000 acres (153,900 hectares), whereas the two canals on the left side are expected to irrigate only 74,000 acres (29,970 hectares). The total length of all the canals is nearly 551·5 miles (888 Km.) and they benefit nearly 4,54,000 acres (183,870 hectares) of land in Sambalpur and Balangir districts. The work on the Dam was started in 1948, and the water was available for irrigation in Bargarh canal in September, 1956.

There is a small township at the project-site which is connected by good motorable roads with Sambalpur. The Calcutta-Bombay National Highway (No. 6) also passes at a point about 4 1/2 miles (7 Kms.) from Hirakud township. Travelling on the main Bombay-Calcutta railway line, one can reach Hirakud going up to Hirakud railway

station from Jharsuguda on Jharsuguda-Titlagarh line passing via Sambalpur. The Administrative Officers' Training School, a polytechnic, Re-rolling mill, Hira Cable Works, Hirakud Induatrial Works, a rice mill set up by Food Corporation of India with Japanese collaboration, and two aluminium factories (Indian Aluminium Company and Aluminium Industries) are the important public and privat institutions located in the area. The town has a police-station, Notified Area Council and a High School. Its population in 1961 Census was 8,593.

253. Huma

A village in the Sambalpur Subdivision, situated on the left bank of the Mahanadi, 14 miles (23 kms.) south of Sambalpur. The village contains the leaning temple dedicated to Siva, which was built in the reign of Baliar Singh, the fifth Raja of Sambalpur. The worship of Siva is said to have been initiated by a milkman (Gauda), who daily crossed the Mahanadi to a place on the bank where the underlying rock croped out. Here he daily offered his dole of milk, which was at once drunk up by the rock, and this miraculous circumstance led to enquiries, which ended in the construction of the present temple. Huma is a place of pilgrimage, and is also visited by strangers out of curiosity to see the different kinds of fish in the river. They are said to be so tame that they will eat sweetmeats from the hands of those who bathe close to the temple. The temple has an endowment consisting of Huma and 6 other villages, which have been exempted from assessment so long as the temple stands and the religious ceremonies are maintained. The grant is an old one, said to date back to the time of Balaram Dev, the first Raja of Sambalpur.

The place is connected by road. A great fair takes place at the foothill in March every year on the occasion of Sivaratri. The presiding diety is Bimalesvara Siva, whom a large number of people worship on the auspicious day of Sivaratri.

The following commodities are mainly sold in the fair: bell-metal utensils from Kantilo, Sambalpur and Balangir; bamboo and wooden toys from Sonepur and Kadobahal; molasses from Sonepur and Dhama; and cotton, *tassar* and handloom cloth from Barpali, Bargarh, Sonepur, and Maniabandh. Population in 1961 Census was 402

254. Jharsuguda

A town in Sambalpur Subdivision, situated 30 miles (48 kms.) to the north of Sambalpur on State Highway No. 10. The old village of Jharsuguda was only about half a mile from the new town. The village was held muaf (free-hold) by a member of the Sambalpur Raj family. It is a junction on the Howrah-Bombay section of South-Eastern Railway, from where a branch line runs up to Titlagarh via Sambalpur. It is also

the railhead of Sundargarh town, the headquarters of Sundargarh district, which is 22 miles (35 kms.) off. Jharsuguda has become a place of industrial and business interest.

The Central State Farm, extending over about 10,000 acres (4,050 hectares), is being set up in Jharsuguda Tahasil (on the periphery of Hirakud Reservoir) by Government of India with Russian collaboration. The headquarters office of this huge farm is located here.

The town has a municipality, established in 1951. There are a college, a high school, and an engineering school. It contains Bhaskar Textiles Ltd. There are an aerodrome, a telephone exchange, an inspection bungalow, a rest shed, a hospital and a veterinary hospital. The 2nd Battalion of Orissa Military Police is also stationed here. Other important Government offices located here are the Tahasil Office with a Sub-Treasury, Police-Station, Commercial Tax Office, State Bank, Divisional Engineer (Railway) Office, Divisional Office of Orissa Forest Corporation.

Population, according to 1961 Census was 19,227. It is the second biggest town in the district.

255. Jujomura

A village in Sambalpur Subdivision, situated on Sambalpur-Cuttack Road (National Highway No. 42). This was formerly a sub-zamindar of the Loising estate held by a Gond, the sub-zamindar paying revenue to the zamindar of Loising. This zamindari, extending over 95 Sq. miles (246 Sq. Kms.) was created during the first part of the 18th Century by a former Raja of Sambalpur. It was at Jujomura that Dr. Moore of Madras Army (mentioned in Chapter II) was murdered while proceeding to give medical aid to troops at Sambalpur engaged in suppressing the rebellion of Surendra Sai. Madhu, one of the Loising zamindar's family, was hanged for having taken part in the murder; but his brother was restored the estate of Loising after amnesty. The inhabitants of Loising, under the leadership of Surendra Sai, gave great trouble during the rebellion of 1857. Total assets of the zamindar amounted to Rs. 6,211 and 15 annas, and he was paying a *takoli* of Rs. 1,765.

There was a considerable area of forest consisting mainly of Sal but much has been cleared. Headquarters of Sambalpur-III Panchayat Samiti and of a police-station. There are a high school, a dispensary, a veterinary dispensary, an inspection bungalow and a post and telegraph office. A weekly market sits here on Tuesday. Population, according to 1961 Census was 900.

256. Kamgaon

A village in Bargarh Subdivision, situated 8 miles (13 Kms.) north of Bargarh town, mostly populated by Kultas. The village is a very old one, and is said to have been established by the Kultas, when they migrated to this part of the district from Boudh about the first part of the 16th Century. It contains a temple of Ramachandi (Goddess Durga), which is held in great veneration by the Kultas, whose chief families, the Bhois and Pradhans, are its priests. The temple is maintained by *muafi* lands in the village. There is a high school.

Population in 1961 Census was 3,070.

257. Kharsal

A village in Bargarh Subdivision (Bhatli Police-Station), situated in the north of Bargarh. Formerly a zamindari extending over 2' Sq miles (73 Sq. Kms.). The nucleus of the zamindari was formed in the reign of Baliar Singh, the fifth Raja of Sambalpur, by the grant of the village of Kharsal to one Udam Gond as reward for services rendered. In 1860, the then zamindar was hanged for having taken an active part in Surendra Sai's rebellion. The *takoli* paid by the zamindar was Rs. 1,535 and his net income was Rs. 5,107. The zamindar had the hereditary title of Sardar and his headquarters were at Kanakbira.

Population, according to 1961 Census was 1,104.

258. Khinda

A village in Sambalpur Subdivision (Katarbaga Police-Station) situated 21 miles (34 Kms.) north of Sambalpur town near Lapanga Railway station. The place is famous for being the residence of Surendra Sai. The village was a muaf grant assigned for the maintenance of the family of Surendra Sai, who belonged to the Raj family of Sambalpur, and claimed succession in preference to Raja Narayan Singh, the last Raja of Sambalpur. This claim he endeavoured to enforce by means of disturbances, which culminated in the commission of a murder in 1840, for which he was sentenced to imprisonment for life. Four years later, this village was given muaf by Raja Narayan Singh for the maintenance of his family. He was released by the mutineers in 1857, and returning to Sambalpur headed a revolt against the British Government. In 1862 he submitted, but he was subsequently found to be carrying on secret intrigues, and was deported from the district in 1864 along with his son Mitrabhanu Sai. The Government of India having passed orders allowing Mitrabhanu Sai to return to his home at Khinda, he returned there in 1907.

A weekly market sits here on Tuesday. Population, according to 1961 Census was 1,329.

259. Kolabira

A village in Laikera Police-Station of Sambalpur Subdivision, situated about 25 miles (40 Kms.) north of Sambalpur. It was formerly a zamindari extending over 278 square miles (720 Sq. Kms.), of which 40 Sq. miles (104 Sq. Kms.) were under forest. The zamindari was created in the reign of Jayant Singh, Raja of Sambalpur. The then zamindar took an active part in the rebellion of Surendra Sai, and was hanged; while his son died an outlaw. The zamindari was, however, restored after the amnesty. The *takoli* paid by the zamindar was Rs. 9,350, while his net income was Rs. 31,149. It was also called the Jaipur estate.

Headquarters of Laikera-III Panchayat Samiti, the place contains a dispensary, a high school, a veterinary dispensary, and a rest house. A weekly market sits here on Monday. Population, according to 1961 Census, was 1,154.

260. Kuchinda

Headquarters of the Subdivision of the same name, situated 31 miles (50 Kms.) from Bamra railway station and 33 miles (53 Kms.) from Deogarh on Bamra-Deogarh road. Also connected by good road with Sambalpur, the distance being 52 miles (84 Kms.). Formerly, it was the headquarters of Kuchinda Tahasil of Bamra ex-State. There are a college, a high school, an inspection bungalow, a rest shed, a hospital, a veterinary dispensary, a sub-jail and a District Agricultural Office. The offices of Subdivisional Officer, Assistant Registrar of Co-operative Societies, and the Court of Subdivisional Magistrate are also located here. A weekly market sits on Friday. Population, according to 1961 Census, was 2,543.

At Lasa, a village about 2 miles (3 Kms.) from Kuchinda, two pre-historic implements of polished stone celt type have been found. (For details *see* Chapter II).

261. Kudabaga

A village in Rengali Police-Station of Sambalpur Subdivision about 30 miles (48 Kms.) north-west of Sambalpur. It was here near Bursapal that V. Ball in 1876 discovered a palaeolithic stone implement. Kudabaga was formerly a zamindari extending over an area of 29 square miles (75 square Kms.). The zamindar was a Gond by caste, and the family took an active part in the rebellion of Surendra Sai. The *takoli* of the estate was Rs. 1,430 and the net income of the zamindar was Rs. 4,783.

Population, according to Census of 1961, was 364.

..62 **Kulighoghar**

A temple situated in the jungle of Chuikhanch near Kudabaga, about 31 miles (50 Kms.) north-west of Sambalpur. The village was a muaf (free hold) grant assigned for the maintenance of the temple. It is a place of pilgrimage. The temple is dedicated to Maheswar Baba and is supposed to be of superhuman construction. There is a waterfall near the temple, and the deity is said to live in a pool at the foot of the fall, which is well-stocked with fish and snakes. There is also a cave in the adjoining rocks called Maheswarnath, said to be his place of retreat.

263. **Kumbhari**

A village in Barpali Police-Station of Bargarh Subdivision, situated 8 miles (13 Kms.) south of Bargarh at the junction of Jira and Ranj rivers. There are two temples here, one dedicated to Mahadeva (Siva) and the other to Jagannath, Balabhadra and S bhadra. Both the temples are maintained by muaf lands in the village. Rathajatra and Sivaratri are the two important festivals of the place. According to King's Gazetteer,* Kumbhari was growing "the best sugarcane in the district". A weekly market sits here on Wednesday. There is a high school.

Population in 1961 Census, was 4,513.

264. **Kuruan**

A village in Bargarh Subdivision, situated about 8 miles (13 Kms.) south-east of Bargarh town. The village was a *muafi* village held by the zamindar of Padampur. There is an old temple here dedicated to Maheswari, also called Uma. The temple is a small tiled building, but the deity which it enshrines is held in great veneration by the Hindus, especially by Dumals. A fair is held during Dasahara festival in October every year, and is attended by a large number of people. Married people having no children visit the temple on this occasion. On the eighth day of the bright fortnight of the month (i. e., Durgastami) one of the Dumal priests of Maheswari is believed to be possessed by the deity, whose spiritual influence is shown by his violently shaking his head.

On this day in the year, he has the privilege of taking out from the temple two sticks (made of Mahua wood), which are said to be the sticks of the deity, and of washing them in the Danta river about a mile off. While proceeding to the river with the sticks, a crowd of worshippers follow with offerings. Those who long to have children, fast on this day and appear before the Dumal, while under the influence of the deity. The cloths of both husband and wife having been tied together, they fall at the feet of the Dumal, and do not rise until they are asked to do so by the

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* Sambalpur District Gazetteer (1932) by F. C. King—P. 246

deity speaking through his lips. They are then told whether their praye for offsrping has been granted or not. Population in 1961 Census was 1,151

265. Laira (Laida)

A village in Katarbaga Police-Station of Sambalpur Subdivision, situated about 28 miles (45 Kms.) North-East of Sambalpur town. This is the village where Agharias are said to have first settled when they migrated to the district. Formerly, it was a zamindari extending over 40 square miles (64 square Kms.). The zamindar was a Gond who paid a *takoli* of Rs. 1,675, his net income being Rs. 5,584. It was a Khalsa Gaontiahi village. The village contains a ruined temple to which the following legend attaches. More than 200 years ago (i. e., about beginning of 18th Century), it is said, one Jewar Gond had a dream in which it was revealed to him that a temple was buried under the ground where he lay. With difficulty he induced the people to believe him, but the place being dug up, his dream was found to be true.

There are a rest house, a veterinary stockman centre. A weekly market sits here on Tuesday. Population according to 1961 Census was 2,960.

266. Larambha

A village in Attabira Police-Station of Bargarh Subdivision, situated on the Gurbhaga-Gandturum road (a road connecting National Highway No. 6 at Gurbhaga), about 25 miles(40Kms.) from Sambalpur and 23 miles (37 Kms.) from Bargarh (via Gurbhaga). Late Brajamohan Panda, an eminent educationist of the district, belonged to this village. And due to his untiring efforts, a high school and a degree college could be established in this small village populated by only 738 persons (according to 1961 Census), majority of whom belonging to backward classes. This is the only college in the district situated in a village.

267. Melchhamunda

A village in Padampur Subdivision, situated 23 miles (37 Kms.) from Padampur on Sohela-Padampur road. Some Buddhist relics have been found at Ganiapali, about 6 miles (10Kms.) from here. The place is identified with ancient Muchalinda, which is said to be a centre of Buddhist learning. (In this connection please see the discussion in Chapter XV.) It contains a Police-Station, a high school and a rest shed. Population, at 1961 Census, was 770.

268. Narsinghnath

A place of pilgrimage in Padampur Subdivision on the Northern flank of Gandhamardan hills, situated about 20 miles (32 Kms.) South-West of Padampur and 2 miles (3 Kms.) from Paikmal. Connected by

good motorable road. There is an inspection bungalow at Paikmal, which is 31 miles (50 Kms.) from Khariar Road Railway Station and 18 miles (29 Kms.) from Padampur . On Nrusimha-chaturdasi day (in May) a big fair takes place here and thousands of pilgrims visit the God.

Beglar's description of the place and of the temple has been quoted from King's Gazetteer[1] and given as Appendix II at the end of the Chapter. G.R. Bhandarkar's[2] account, published in the Report of the Archaeological Survey of India for 1904-05 and quoted in King's Gazetteer, is reproduced below:

"The temple is situated at the foot of a hill, and is surrounded on all sides by one of the thickest jungles of the Central Provinces[3]. A streamlet gurgles closeby, the water of which is regarded as sacred, and at five places accumulates itself into five pools, called *Kundas.* The trees and shrubs, with which the hill is overgrown, are so tall and numerous that even at mid-day the sun-light that filters through their foliage is hardly stronger or brighter than that of the morning outside the jungle. Higher upon the hill towards the South-East near the first *Kunda,* are four colossal figures, rudely carved out of the rock. They are shown as the first four of the five Pandava brothers. Close beside the Northern door of the temple is another huge rude figure carved out of the rock, which is pointed out as that of Sahadeva, the remaining fifth Pandava brother. Near him is another colossal figure, which is of Ganapati. Not far from these may be noticed, amongst the broken scupltures lying loose, a nicely chiselled pedestral with seven horses in front of it. The image which was originally set up on it must, doubtless, have been that of Surya.

"The temple faces the East, and consists of a shrine and *jagmohan* or hall. In front of the temple, on the other side of the streamlet, is a Garuda *stambha* or pillar, with a small niche at the top where a lamp lighted during the Diwali festival. It is said to have been erected but seven years ago. Near the *jagmohan* are small chambers, which are modern erection. One of them is used as a granary and a cooking-room, where the *bhoga* or offering made to the deity is prepared. Others are occupied by the *pujaris* or worshippers, and one of them has been reserved as a *dharmasala* for pilgrims.

"The walls of the *jagmohan,* as they are at present, are unquestionably rebuilt. The hall had originally three door-ways, facing the East, North and South, but now only the first two remain, the third being blocked up

1. Sambalpur District Gazetteer (1932) by F. C. King, p. 248

2. *Ibid*—pp. 250—254

3. Padampur was then in the Central Provinces. From 1905 it formed a part of Orissa

and replaced with masonry work, thus, giving an uncouth and unsymmetrical shape to the side wall. The remaining door-frames are of stone of a dark colour, and are deeply and beautifully carved. That on the North has Gajalakshmi occupying the post of honour on the lintel. Lakshmi sits on a *padmasana* or lotus throne with her right leg resting on the throne and her left handing loose and touching a stool down below. On each side of her is a *chauri* bearer, and above the latter are two elephants, one on each side,standing on lotuses and holding water pitche s in their trunks. In old temples in the South, Gajalakshmi plays a prominent part on the door-ways, specially of the halls. And it is not surprising that the figure of Gajalakshmi should be seen in an old temple in Orissa, which is connected with the South more than with the North, and as a matter of fact, even in Orissa, at Cuttack, we meet with a scuplture representing Gajalakshmi in one of its ancient caves[1].

"Now, to turn to the temple of Narasinhanatha—the door-frame on the north has three mouldings, the central one mostly carved with pairs of musicians and the other two with floral ornamentation. It holds, in relief near the bottom on its proper right, Siva in one campartment and Ganga on a *makar* or crocodile in the other, and on its proper left, Siva again in one compartment and Yamuna on a *kurma* or tortoise in the other. The door-frame facing the east is almost exactly like this, but the figures at the bottom are not Siva and Ganga or Yamuna, but a *dvarapala* or door-keeper and a female *chauri* bearer. In the projecting wall above this door-way are Navagraha or the Nine Planets, which are generally sculptured over the entrances of halls or shrines to ward off the influence of evil spirits. Near this door-frame on its proper left is the standing image of a warrior with hands folded and with a sword held against the breast between it and the left hand. Judging from analogous instances this seems to have been a figure of the personage who was principally connected with either the construction or the restoration of the temple*. The roof of the *jagmohan* is supported by the walls, and four columns of stone of a reddish colour and nicely sculptured. In the walls, outside, have been built some sculptures, which, in all likelihood, formed part of the original exterior of the hall.

"On the lintel of the shrine door-way is again a figure of Gajalakshmi but here Lakshmi is seated cross-legged. The door jambs contain, near the bottom, images of Jaya and Vijaya in niches elegantly carved. In

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1. Cave Temples of India, by Fergusson and Burgess, p. 71 and pl. I.

* This statue, and another statue (riding a horse) discovered by Dr. N. K. Sahu in 1964 may be identified with that of Vaijal Dev, the Raja of Patna, who erected the temple. Photos of both these statues have been printed in Balangir District Gazetteer (1968), as well as in this gazetteer.

other respects, the shrine door-frame is plain and devoid of all ornamentation. There are only three principal niches on the exterior of the shrine. That facing the north has an image of Trivikrama with four hands, one broken off and the other three bearing a conch, a discus, and a mace. Near his foot, on one side, is Lakshmi and or the other are three figures, viz., of Vamana, Bali, and his minister. In the niche at the back is Narasinha, and in that facing the south, Varaha.

"Inside the shrine is a very small image of what is called by the people there Marjarakesari, a form of Vishnu with the head of a cat and the body of a lion. It is thickly swathed in clothes and has a brass nose, eyes and mouth. A long description of the genesis of this incarnation of Vishnu has been set forth in a local *mahatmya* composed in Oriya, but a brief account of it will not here be out of place. A certain *rishi* was performing religious austerities on the banks of the Godavari. He had a daughter of the name of Malati. Ravana, the demon king of Ceylon, once came thither and was smitten with her beauty. He ravished her, and thereupon the *rishi* curshed her and forthwith quitted the place. She fell into a swoon, and was thrown in this condition into the river by Ravana. But Godavari protected her, and she was brought back safely to the bank. When she regained her consciousness, she began to search after her father. Finding her search to be fruitless, she took to weeping. Her wailings were heard by Musaka (mouse), the vehicle of Ganapati, who came up to her. He promised to restore her to her father on condition of enjoying intercourse with her, and thus from Ravana and Musaka was born of her a demon called Musakadatta. When the latter grew up, he ate his mother up. Thereafter he performed religious austerities, which propitiated Siva. The God conferred on him the boon that he would have cause for fear from none but Narasinha of the *Satya Yuga*. The demon thus became a source of trouble to the Gods. The Gods repaired to Rama Chandra and prayed for his mercy. Rama Chandra assumed the form of Narasinha and came within sight of Musakadatta. The latter fled in fear and was pursued by Narasinha. The demon approached the mountain called Gandhagiri, where the temple stands, and he sought him to grant him refuge. This was granted, and the demon assumed the form of a mouse and entered the mountain. Narasinha had, therefore, to become a cat, and continued the pursuit. But Gandhagiri interceded and so did the Gods also, who requested Narasinha to establish himself there in that feline form, and devour Musakadatta when he came out".

There is an inscription in proto-Oriya script and in Oriya language on a slab of black stone in the temple. The date of this inscription is 14th March 1413 A.D. (Vide Chapter II-p.52). The inscription is assigned

to Vaijal Dev, Raja of Patna. It consists of four lines which read as follows :

Text of the inscription

L. 1—ନମଃ ଶ୍ରୀ ନୃସିଂହାୟ ସ୍ବସ୍ତି ଶ୍ରୀ ବିକାରି ନାମ ସମ୍ବତ୍ସରେ ଚୈତ୍ର ପୌର୍ଣ୍ଣମା ଶୁକ୍ରବାରେ ହସ୍ତା ନକ୍ଷତ୍ରେ ପାଟଣା ନଗରସ୍ଥିତ ବତ୍ସ ରାଜଦେବ ରାଜାଙ୍କର ପୁତ୍ର ବୈଜାଳ

L. 2—ଦେବ ମନୋହର ପୁତ୍ରାର୍ଥେ ଗନ୍ଧମାର୍ଦ୍ଦନ ପର୍ବତେ ବିରାଜ ନରସିଂହନାଥ ସ୍ବାମୀଙ୍କର ଦେଉଳ ତୋଳାଇଲା । ହୃଦୟ ଭୂଷଣ ରତ୍ନମାନ ଗାଇ ଶତେକ ଲୋହାସିଂଗା

L. 3—ଗ୍ରାମ ପାଶେ ଆଦି ମେରଡ଼ା ବରିଲୋନା ଲୋହଦୌ ଭୂମି ରାପଙ୍ଗ ପଦାମ୍ରଣ୍ଡ ଅହେ ଭାର୍ଗ୍ଗିଷ୍ଟ ଉଭୟ ସନ୍ଧ୍ୟା ଧର୍ମେ ପୂଜା ପର୍ଦ୍ଦ ଚରୁପାକ ପାଣିଗ୍ରାହୀ ପୂରାଣେ

L. 4—. . . .ଦେଲା । ପ୍ରଶସ୍ତିକାର ଅଘା ଶ୍ରୀ ନରସିଂହସ୍ୟ ପ୍ରୀତୟେ ।

Translation

Vaijaladeva, son of Vatsarajadeva, the Raja of Patna, caused the erection of the temple on the hill Gandhamardana and presented a necklace of precious stones along with 100 cows to the God Vidala Narasimhanatha. He also granted to the priest of the temple for maintenance of worship some lands situated on the locality known as Adimerada and Variionala and a mango grove known as Rapanga lying in the vicinity of Lohasinga. The gift was made on Friday, the full-moon day of Chaitra, the moon remaining in the Hasta *naksatra* in the year Vikari. The object of the donor in making the gifts was to have a son through propitiation of God. The text was composed by Agha[1].

269. Nildungri

A village in Sason police-station of Sambalpur Subdivision, situated about 9 miles (14 Kms.) from Sambalpur on Sambalpur-Deogarh road (a portion of National Highway No. 6). The place is famous for the sisal farm, which extends over an area of 1,481 acres (600 hectares) in two blocks (i. e., 751 acres at Nildungri and 730 acres at Beldungri). The farm was started by late John Martin Casey, an Irish-man, who grew here Sisal plants having brought the main crop from East Africa.

Mr. John Martin Casey was the pioneer in India for cultivation of Sisal hemp and manufacturing ropes with its fibre. He was born in 1872 and became a civil engineer. He served in the Darjeeling-Himalayan Railway and in the Assam-Bengal Railway. When posted at Chittagong he had such severe attacks of malaria that he was advised to give up his job. Then he joined the Tea Districts Labour Association and was posted at Sambalpur. There, while living in a thatched house

1. "Narasimhanath stone inscription of Vaijal d va" by Binayaka Misra published in the Indian Historical Quarterly (Edited by Narendra Nat Law) Vol. XII, No. 1 March 1936—pp. 485-486.

of a Baptist Missionary called Pike, he grew sisal in a small patch in his garden. In 1904 he took lease of 800 acres of Nildungri forest. In 1906 he moved to Nildungri and started the Sisal plantation. In 1922 he took lease of 600 acres of Beldungri forest and extended Sisal plantation. He died at Nildungri in 1940 at the age of 68. He grew 2 varieties of Agave Rigida (Sisal and Elongata). He built his farm house at Nildungri and in addition to Sisal he also grew paddy for feeding labour and oranges for business. He kept large herds of bullocks and cows and was self-sufficient in all respects including having a little dispensary for his family as well as for the labour colony. His ropery which he started in 1930 consisted of a few bi-cycles without wheels. The rope produced was as good as the rope produced by any ropery in Calcutta. After extraction, the Sisal waste became manure for his vegetable garden and for his fields. After his death in 1940, the plantation was being managed by his widow and by his 3 daughters--Clare, Madge and Peggy. After the death of Mrs. Casey, the 3 sisters found it difficult to manage the property in the face of persistent labour agitation. They sold the property to Government in 1964 for Rs. 7 lakhs. It was in such good running order that Government made a net profit of Rs. 3 lakhs in 1967. An account of Mr. John Martin Casey has been given by his daughter Mrs. Clare Morris.

Population of the place, according to 1961 Census, was 220.

270. Padampur (Raj-Borasambar)

Situated on the Sohela-Khariar road 48 miles (77 Kms.) from Bargarh, is the headquarters of Padampur Subdivision. Formerly, it was the headquarters of the Zamindar of Borasambar, who has his residence here. Historical details of his family have been mentioned under 'Borasambar'. After remaining a part of Bargarh Subdivision for several years, it became a separate Subdivision from the 1st July 1969, consisting of seven police-stations. Narsinghnath, a place of pilgrimage, is only about 20 miles (32 Kms) from here.

There is a Notified Area Council which conducts municipal administration of the town. A few Government offices are located here, viz., offices of the Subdivisional Officer, Tahasildar, Panchayat Samiti, District Inspector of Schools, Sub-Treasury, Forest Ranger, and Regional Marketing Co-operative Society. It contains a degree college, two high schools including one for girls, a Kanyashram, a police-station, a cinema house, an elementary training school for women, an inspection bungalow, a hospital and a veterinary dispensary. A weekly market sits here on Saturday.

Population according to 1961 Census was 5,574.

271. Phasimal (Pasimal)

A village in Kuchinda Subdivision, approachable from Jamunkira (Jamankira) and Kuchinda by fair-weather roads. Some cultivators of the village are practising improved methods of cultivation and are having good return. There is a High School, a Veterinary Stockman Centre, and a Panchayat Office. Population according to 1961 Census was 543.

272. Rampur

A village in Jharsuguda police-station of Sambalpur Subdivision situated about 25 miles (40 Kms.) north-west of Sambalpur and 8 miles (13 Km.) from Jharsuguda. It was formerly a zamindari extending over 149 square miles (386 Sq. Kms.). The zamindari was created in the reign of Raja Chhatra Sai of Sambalpur who conferred it on a Rajput named Pran Nath, a scion of the royal house. In the time of Narayan Singh, the last Raja of Sambalpur, several of the relations of the zamindar were murdered by Surendra Sai and Udwant Sai, who for this offence, were sentenced to imprisonment for life. The *Takoli* of the estate was Rs. 4,865 and the income of the zamindar was Rs. 16,225.

The area is famous for occurrences of coal. Population according to 1961 Census was 671.

273. Rampur (Rairakhol)

Headquarters of the Rairakhol Subdivision, situated on National Highway No. 42 (Cuttack-Sambalpur road) at a distance of 42 miles (68 Kms.) from Sambalpur. Formerly, it was the headquarters of Rairakhol ex-State. There are an inspection bungalow, a rest shed, a hospital, a sub-jail, a veterinary dispensary and a high school. Besides the Subdivisional offices and Judicial Courts, the office of Rairakhol Forest Division is located here. A weekly market sits on Saturday. Population according to 1961 Census was 2,449.

274. Sambalpur

Principal town and headquarters of the district. The Jharsuguda-Titlagarh section of South-Eastern Railway passes through the town, where there are two railway stations namely, Sambalpur road and Sambalpur. They are only 2 Kms. apart. The place is also connected by road with important places of the State, as well as of Madhya Predesh and Bihar. National Highway No. 6 passes through the town. The town lies along the left or north-eastern bank of the Mahanadi and is very picturesquely situated. The view is especially fine in September, when, from some such point as the circuit house hill over-looking the river, fields heavy with irrigated rice can be seen stretching away for miles together while in the background wooded hills fringe the horizon

seeming in the clear atmosphere of this season to be less than half their real distance away. In the foreground is the Mahanadi, which is nearly a mile broad. The Brooks hill inside the town and the Budharaja hill at the northern end of the town also make the view yet more charming.

According to tradition, Sambalpur derives its name from the Goddess Samalai Devi, its tutelary deity, who was installed here by Raja Balaram Dev, the founder of the town and the first Raja of Sambalpur. Legend relates that Balaram Dev, who had been given a grant of this part of the country by his brother Raja Narasingh Dev of Patna, established himself at a place called Chaurpur on the western bank of the Mahanadi. One day while hunting, he crossed the river, and set his hounds at a hare, only to find after a long chase that they had been repulsed by it. Struck by this extraordinary exhibition of courage by the most timid of animals, he concluded that there must be some supernatural virtue in the land. He therefore determined to make his capital there, and having built a town, installed in it the tutelary goddess of his family. The place where her image was set up was an island (*Kud*) on which stood a cotton tree, and hence was called Semul-Kud, while the goddess was given the name of Samalai. Local tradition asserts that the place where the Raja's do s were repulsed by the hare is a spot, known as Badiraj, in front of the old city police-station near the Balibandha tank, and that the old town founded by Balaram Dev was between the city police-station and Samalai Devi's temple.

The goddess is now enshrined in a temple called *Samalai gudi*, said to have been erected by Chhatra Sai, the seventh Raja of Sambal-pur. The image of Samalai is a large block of stone, in the middle of which is a projection with a narrow groove regarded as the mouth. On both sides of this are depressions covered with beaten gold leaf to represent the eyes. The temple itself is a square building standing on a high plinth and surmounted by a spire. It has a verandah on each side and four domes at the corners, and is built of stone cemented with mortar (*see* also Appendix III). Another temple, known as the temple of Bara Jagannath, which is within the Gopalji Math, is said to have been erected by Bansi Gopal, a son of Madhukar Sai, fourth Raja of Sambalpur.

A third temple, called the Brahmapura temple, because it is situated in Brahamapura, the Brahman quarter, is of great sanctity. Many civil suits were being decided by the oaths of parties taken at it. The temple is small but it has a large hall in front with a roof consisting of nine hemispherical vaults. The door-frame of the temple is made of a reddish-coloured marble, and on the architrave is carved an image of Krishna sitting upon a lotus and playing a flute. On the right jamb

of the door there are nine images carved, and inside the nine domes are more carvings believed to represent the nine *avataras* (incarnations) of Vishnu, the tenth being represented by Krishna himself over the doorway. Inside the temple are images of Jagannath, Balabhadra and Subhadra carved in wood.

Other temples deserve mention are those of Ananta Sajya and Patneswari. The temple of Ananta Sajya is said to have been built by Balaram Dev. The image of Anantasayi Vishnu enshrined in it was brought from Surguja by his queen, who was a daughter of the Raja of Surguja. The temple was renovated by Banksi Gopal. It consists of the Vimana, a pillared porch and a Garuda-Stambha in front. The temple of Patneswari was built by Balaram Dev in the last part of the 16th century. It consists of a sanctum with an enclosed circular court. Patneswari is goddess Kali.

Historically, the old fort to the north-west of the town is more interesting. This is said to have been built in the beginning of the 18th century by Raja Ajit Singh, who was naturally induced by the raids of the Marathas to fortify the portion of the town in which his palace stood. He, therefore, excavated a moat round the palace, the two ends of which joined the Mahanadi, one at the side on which the city police-station stands, and the other to the west of Samalai Gudi. All round the palace thorny bamboos were planted to form a barrier against invaders, and the bank of the Mahanadi from the Mohan Darwaza to the Samalai Gudi, a length of 2,443 feet, was defended by a stone wall. Towers or bastions with embrasures for guns were erected at intervals on the wall. They were 18 feet high and 72 feet in circumference, and were faced with stone 3 feet thick and filled in with earth. Nothing now remains of the fort but the crumbling stone wall on the river face and a few smouldering bastions. One gateway only is left, that of Samalai near the temple of the Goddess, and though the remains of the moat are still visible, it is filled up here and there.

Several important Government offices are located here. Of the circle and divisional offices, the following need mention :—

The offices of Revenue Divisional Commissioner, Deputy Inspector-General of Police, Conservator of Forests, Deputy Director of Agriculture, Assistant Commissioner of Commercial Taxes, Superintending Engineer (Roads and Buildings), Divisional Manager of State Transport Service, District Engineer (Telegraphs), Courts of District and Sessions Judge, Superintendent of Post Offices, Deputy Director of Animal Husbandry, and Deputy Registrar of Co-operative Societies. Besides, district level offices of various departments are also located here. All-India Radio has its station here. Important educational institutions located in the town are Gangadhar Meher College,

Government Training College, Government Women's College, Gangadhar Meher Evening College, Lajpat Rai Law College, Zilla School, Convent School, and a Central School. This is also the seat of the Sambalpur University for the present. There is a Municipality to look into the administration and sanitation of the town. There are a jail, a hospital, a veterinary hospital, the Mahanadi Club, three cinema houses and an agricultural research station. A Circuit House, two Inspection Bungalows, a rest house, a sarai and a few lodging houses and hotels are also there where visitors can stay. Population, according to 1961 Census, was 38,915.

275. Sason

A village in the Sambalpur subdivision, situated 8 miles (13 Kms.) north of Sambalpur on Sambalpur-Jharsuguda road. There is a railway station of the same name (in village Ranikhinda) on the Jharsuguda-Titlagarh section of South-Eastern Railway. It contains a temple dedicated to Gopinath, which was built in the 18th century during the reign of Ajit Singh, but became dilapidated and was subsequently repaired by one Hari Guru with subscriptions raised by the Brahmins. There is another temple dedicated to Nilakantheswar Mahadeva. This village and the adjoining villages were, as the name shows, a *sason* grant, and were *muafi malguzari* villages. The village is also called Ajitpursason (as the 1961 Census records it), probably named after Raja Ajit Singh.

The term *Sason* is old dating to the time when Brahmins enjoyed the patronage of ruling Rajas. They were given numerous grants of villages rent-free, and the central portions of such villages were marked out for the exclusive residence of Brahmin families devoted to the practise of religious rites or the cultivation of Sanskrit learning. A typical *sason* as the Brahmin portion of the village was called, had a road, some feet broad, running through it, lined on each side by cocoanut groves, behind which were the residences of the Brahmin families descended from the original grantees.

Sason is the headquarters of a police-station. It contains a high school, a rice mill, a veterinary stockman centre, and a dispensary. Population, according to 1961 Census, was 394.

276. Sohela

A village in Padampur subdivision, situated 16 miles (26 Kms.) west of Bargarh and 32 miles (51 Kms.) from Padampur and connected by good roads. It is on National Highway No. 6 and is one of the chief trade centres. A good deal of trade in foodgrains is carried on here. On the west bordering Madhya Pradesh, it serves as the gateway of the district. Day and night, a considerable motor traffic passes through this place to Bombay, Raipur and other places of Madhya Pradesh.

It is also the headquarters of a police-station. There are a high school, a dispensary, a veterinary dispensary, an elementary training school, an inspection bungalow, and a rest shed. A weekly market sits here on Saturday. Population, according to 1961 Census was 2,529.

277. Ushakothi

This is a picturesque wild life sanctuary located 43 kilometres North-East of Sambalpur on the National Highway No. 6. It came into being in 1957-58. It offers great attraction to tourists. The visitors are usually attracted because of its easy accessibility and varieties of colourful wild life. The forest Rest House at Badarama situated about a mile from the sanctuary, provides enjoyable accommodation to the visitors.

The sanctuary lies at an altitude of 1,200 ft. from the sea level and covers the entire Ushakothi Block of the Bamra Forest Division—an area of about 80 sq. miles (207 sq. Km.). The main attraction of the sanctuary are the huge herds of bison and Sambar, which one seldom misses. Besides, the visitors can see tiger, panther, bear, wild bear and leopards as well as herds of elephant, barking deer and spotted deer. There are two masonry watch towers each 30 feet high on which the visitors can get the experience of watching the animals roaming in their natural surroundings. The sanctuary is open for watching all the year round, but the best period is from November to June.

The sanctuary, however, lacks water supply particularly in summer months when many animals move away to neighbouring areas. It is, therefore, necessary that some tanks be dug at different places. Road system inside the sanctuary also requires improvement.

278. Vikramkhol

Located 16 miles (26 Km) to the west of Jharsuguda railway station, it is a cave containing pictographic inscriptions of antiquity. This pre-historic find is of remarkable importance and is yet to be deciphered. Swami Jnanananda, an educated Sadhu, discovered the inscription and informed Dr. K.P. Jayaswal, who examined it and published his treatise in historical papers in 1933. (This has been given as Appendix IV). After this, Vikramkhol came to limelight. Recently, a plaster-cast of the inscription has been brought to and kept in the Orissa State Museum at Bhubaneswar. For detailed discussion, see Chapter II.

APPENDIX I

(Barpali)

The American Friends Service Committee introduced various programmes in Barpali and its neighbourhood to bring forth changes in the social, cultural and economic life of the people. Thomas M. Fraser, Jr. in his book "Culture & Change in India" has grouped those programmes into three categories. They are as follows :—

> "training programmes, in which groups of people selected on the basis of certain criteria, were given instruction designed to improve their skills in certain areas; substantive programmes in which a specific practice or item was sought by the project to be introduced as widely as possible, either as a substitute for or as a supplement to an existing practice or item; and organizational programmes, in which groups of villagers, selected on the basis of certain criteria, were encouraged to organize and co-ordinate their efforts toward the achievement of a specific goal."

A little elaboration of these progrpmmes is given below :—

TRAINING PROGRAMME

The very purpose of the training programme was to motivate village workers, village mechanics and health workers to accept the innovation for a successful implementation of schemes in the locality.

SUBSTANTIVE PROGRAMME

The aim of this programme was either to replace an existing item or practice, as covered wells for unprotected water supplies and improved poultry for local fowl or to add to existing practices and items, as the introduction of vegetable growing among members of Kulta caste and innovation of latrines. The latter two innovations may be taken as substitute for existing practices.

ORGANIZATIONAL PROGRAMMES

The Organizational programmes were introduced to organise and co-ordinate the efforts of the villagers to cope with the change and changing socio-economic conditions. The Chamars' Co-operative, the weavers' Co-operative and the pre-paid medical service Co-operative were formed to bring forth socio-economic changes.

But unfortunately these programmes left no lasting impression on the minds of the local people. Thomas M. Fraser, Jr. has attributed the following reasons to the failure of these programmes.

(a) Village workers gradually assumed their roles as paid employees and found losing initiative to work with a spirit of dedication. But this did not fit too neatly with the project's conception of a village worker as a dedicated, self sacrificing and service oriented individual.

(*b*) Lack of staff continuity and inconsistencies in policy matter hampered the progress of the programme to a considerable extent.

(*c*) Lack of technical knowledge of the villagers had a greater impact on the intangible nature of these programmes. Villagers also failed to perceive the advantages of the programmes in terms of their felt needs.

(*d*) Organisational programme suffered from a common failure due to non-visualization of ultimate organisational goal.

(*e*) The staff stationed at Barpali had not adequate knowledge of the local culture which otherwise would have been of much help in implementing the programmes successfully.

(*f*) Also the Indian counterparts whom the American Fridends Service Committee regarded as "Cultural Guides" did not have specific cultural knowledge that might have been useful in implementing the same.

(*g*) The village workers were found unable to create motivation among the villagers to adopt to the innovations. This is one of the most important reasons for which the programme could not stand the test of experience.

(*h*) Because the local culture failed to absorb the innovations in its fold, it became very much difficult to make the programmes successful. In the words of Fraser "if the innovation is to replace an element of the culture, it should be able to approximate closely all of the relationships of the old element; if the innovation is planned to add to the culture without replacing traditional elements (a situation in practice difficult if not impossible to achieve) it should be able to fit in harmoniously with the rest of the cultural system. Because no two cultures are patterned or integrated in precisely the same way, the innovation of even superficially simple, utilitarian objects may be totally locked because of the differences of fit and meaning between the *innovating* and receiving *cultures*."

Utilisation value of the pump well though immense, since it could not be able to fit into the existing practices it proved failure. It is true that an innovation if not fitted into an existing pattern cannot grow in a new cultural soil. When attitudes and actions of the people are shaped by a frame-work of belief, a lot of sincerity is needed to create motivation among the villagers for a change over to a new culture But the American Friends Service Committee failed to instill that sincerity into the hearts of the village workers who are working in the project for which serious impediments were faced in achieving the developmental objectives of the project.

APPENDIX II

Account on Narsinghnath given by J. D. Beglar*

The tirtha is at the source of the Papaharni Nala (a tributary of the Ang), at the point where it finally leaves the hills after numberless cascades. It rises at the top of the hill and is said to first see the light at the foot of a large mango tree, where it bubbles forth from a spring. It soon increases in volume by various additions, and descends the west slope of the hill in a series of cascades and rapids, some of which (three) are very high up, and of some height, the third cascade being distinctly visible from a distance of fully 10 miles with the naked eye, and probably from a greater distance. The temples are situated at the point where it finally leaves the foot of the steep hill and starts on its way fairly in the undulating plains, the temples are neither very large nor very remarkable, though sufficiently so for this part of India.

The most important temple is a tolerably large one in the Khajuraha style, once very elaborately sculptured inside and out, but having fallen into decay, has been repaired with a liberal allowance of plaster, which covers up everything. The *mahamandapa* which, however, I was not allowed to enter, has three entrances, and so far is an improvement on the Khajuraha style. These entrances are about the only external portions of the temple not buried in plaster, they are small but elaborately sculptured. All round the tower of the sanctum are rows of statues as at Khajuraha, but these rows of statues are not continued on to the *mahamandapa*, which on this account, as well from a certain want of proportion (so far as I could judge by the age, for I was not allowed to measure), to the sanctum, I consider to be a subsequent addition, the original one having most probably fallen down. The *mahamandapa* is supported internally on pillars, which are well carved and apparently old, so far as I could judge looking at them from outside the entrances.

Tradition ascribes the building of the temple to Bijal Deo Gangabauri, Raja of Orissa, and it is said that seven successive Pandas have officiated as priests in this temple since its erection. This statement is certainly strange, and I accordingly interpret it thus—That Bijal Deo was the founder and the temple fell into decay, but was repaired at one time., since when seven successive Pandas have officiated. This would place the repair of the temple about 150 years back at the utmost, and its erection a few centuries earlier. But we have better grounds to go upon in determining the age of this temple from an inscription which

*The account was taken from an article of J. D. Beglar published in 1882 in the reports of the Archaeological Survey of India, Volume XIII and quoted in Sambalpur District Gazetteer—(1932) by F. C. King pp. 248—250.

is let into the wall. The inscription, it is true, is on a detached slab simply let into the temple outside, and may or may not belong to it but it certainly belongs to some temple which once at least existed here. and as this one is clearly the oldest now existing, and therefore, if not the identical one, at least one of a group of temples to which the inscription belonged, its age can with every confidence be ascertained within moderate limits from it, if the statement of the inscription be not inconsistent with the age which, on architectural data, ought to be assigned to it.

The inscription is in transitional Oriya characters, very closely approaching modern Oriya. It mentions Bachha Raja of Patna and Bijal Raja, his son, and records the gift of the village of Loisinga. It is dated, but here is the puzzle. The date is either 672 or 728, which is utterly inconsistent with the forms of the characters, if referred to either the Saka or the Vikrama eras. I am, therefore, inclined to consider it as a Hijra date, for it was no uncommon thing to use the Hijra or Fasli date all over Bengal down to so late as a score of years ago, and there is nothing improbable or impossible in its having been used elsewhere also, it being clearly the recognized official era [1]. If then we consider it as the Hijra, all difficulties are cleared away, for the form of the characters and the character of the architecture both agree with the date.

Besides this principal temple, there are some other shrines, which are modern and of no interest, there is one small shrine to Mahadeva, which appears old, on the opposite or north bank of the nullah, but it is of no interest. The other objects of interest, or at least of reverence, are the various *kunds* or pools in the bed of the nullah, which are considered efficacious in washing away sins. The lowest is at a spot near the temple called Gau Kund, though why it should be called a *kund* is not evident, as there is no pool, deep or shallow, here at all. Higher up, at short distance, is a beautiful, small roaring cascade, which falls into a pool below, the cascade is known as the Gaj Dhar. Higher up is another with a fall of about 20 feet known as the Bhim Dhar, and still higher, a small water-worn hole in the rocks on the right bank, known as the Sita Kund, it is fabled to be the spot where Sita, going to wash certain soiled garments of hers, was blamed greatly by Rama for attempting to pollute the stream, and she accordingly scooped out the *kund* or hole that exists. Higher up is the Panch Pandu Kund, and other sacred spots. There are several rock sculptures of rude execution mostly figures of Siva, Nandi and the Lingam, but also of Brahma and of Vishnu and of some seated figures.

1. General Cunningham points out that the date of the inscription cannot be the Fasli year.

APPENDIX III

(SAMBALPUR)

Sakta Goddesses of Chauhan dynasty

Prior to the advent of the Chauhans, Patna-region was a strong hold of Saivism and Tantric religion. The Chauhans brought their own faith with them. But they did not enjoin it upon the people ; rather they reckoned their own faith, with that of the locality. This they did under political expediency to please the local people. Ramai Deva, the first Chauhan ruler, was a devotee of Asapuri Devi, the tutelary goddess of the Chauhans, all over India, but in Patna, he identified her as Patneswari meaning the presiding goddess of Patna. She was regarded as an aspect of Durga and her image was installed in the temple built by Ramai Deo inside the fort. He assigned for the worship of the Goddess five small villages viz., Deulgan, Kalangapali, Diadumber, Uchvali and Ghunghutipali, which are still being enjoyed by the worshippers. Since then Patneswari was the tutelary Goddess of the Chauhans of Patna-house. Balaram Deva, who established a new kingdom in Sambalpur region, exalted the local deity Samalai and accepted her with his own tutelary Goddess, following the example of his fore-father Ramai Deva. Thus the Chauhans made it their principle to esteem and extol the deities of the people wherever they expanded their territory. This made them very popular among the subjects and aided to a great extent to the success of their long reign.

The Sakta temples of the Chauhans mostly include those of Patneswari and Samalai, the former being the family deity of Patna-house and the latter of the Sambalpur-Sonepur house. Patneswari temples are found at Patnagarh, Balangir and Sambalpur. The temple of Patnagarh was erected by the first Raja of Patna, Ramai Deva, in the middle of the 14th Century A. D. while that of Sambalpur was constructed by Balaram Deva in the last part of the 16th Century A. D. The Patneswari temple at Balangir is of late construction and it was built along with the temple of Samalai by the time the new township was laid out in the later part of the 19th Century. Although the Chauhan domain had only three Patneswari temples mentioned above, the number of Samalai temples in the Kingdom was quite large. Remarkable among them are noticed at Sambalpur, Barpali, and Sonepur.

In the religious life of the people of Sambalpur district, Samalai occupies a pivotal position. She is being worshipped under a tree in the form of a stone in the vicinity of every village. Goddess Samalai was mentioned as witness in the Copper Plate Grant of Jayanta Singh, which is dated at 28th April, 1790 A. D. There are also a few references to the Goddess Samalai in the Kosalananda Mahakavya, written by Gangadhar Misra, the court-poet of Baliar Singh. There is a legend that

during the demolition of Hindu Gods and Goddesses by Kalapahar, the pandits of Puri fled with the image of Jagannath, and buried it in Sonepur on the Mahanadi, to the south of Sambalpur, and Kalapahar followed them to Sambalpur with his army. Goddess Samalai is said to have assumed the form of a milk-maid, and sold milk and curd to his soldiers, which spread desolation among his army. At this time the army of king Balabhadra drove back Kalapahar. This indicates the extent of reverence shown to Goddess Samalai.

But the origin of Samalai is steeped in mystery. Because of phonetic similarity between Samalai and Simul (silk-cotton), King in his Gazetteer of Sambalpur gives credence to the story that the Goddess worshipped under a silk-cotton tree on an island came to be called Samalai. Gangadhar Misra has advanced the same theory in his Kosalananda Mahakavya. But beyond phonetic similarity there is nothing else to justify acceptance of this theory. King also mentions that the Chauhan Ruler—Balaram Dev who established Sambalpur brought with him from Patnagarh his family deity, but there is nothing to show what deity it was He is said to have established his family deity at the place where his hounds were repulsed by a hare and because a Simul tree stood on the island the deity was called Samalai. This is obviously unacceptable as there is a temple at Patnagarh, which was the original seat of Balaram Dev, by the name of Samaleswari.

Samalai in Sonepur is represented by a fierce looking image, but in Sambalpur and Barpali her image conveys a very different conception. The image of Samalai is a unique sculpture and it does not correspond with any of the forms of Devi icon of Hindu iconography. It is a huge block of stone in the middle of which is a projection with depressions on both the sides and close under it a narrow groove which is regarded as mouth. When dressed with usual ornaments, the image very nearly resembles the face of a female deity British archaeologist Beglar, who visited Sambalpur towards the end of 19th Century, descibes it in the following words. It is a "large block of stone in the middle of which is a projection resembling the mouth of a cow. The extremity of this projection has a groove of a thread-breath which is called the mouth. At both sides of this projection, there are depressions, over which beaten gold leaf is placed as a substitute for eyes". The image of the Goddess does not resemble any other Sakta Goddess found in Orissa. She appears to be a non-Aryan deity worshipped by the local people and with the rule of Balaram Deva was accepted as the family deity of the Chauhan rulers of Sambalpur. According to Siva Prasad Das, there is another *parsva-devata* of Samalai called as 'Pitabali'. 'Pitabaladi' is the Goddess of Khonds. People of 'Sahara' caste worship Samalai in Sambalpur district. They were considered as untouchables. Buffaloes are sacrificed before Samalai. All these indicate the character of a primitive deity.

The establishment of Goddess Samalai at Sambalpur may be about the year 1348-49 A. D. Balaram Dev enshrined the Goddess inside his fort. During his rule the Puja-services were supplied from the royal-treasury. The present temple was built during the reign of Chhatra Sai about the year 1691 A. D. He assigned for the worship of the Goddess forty villages. But the priests have made it their personal property during the British rule, either by hiding or destroying the copper plate grants. Anyhow, they are managing now the *puja* performances of the Goddess. The temple has no property.

The temple is of the Gothic order. "The plinth is about 16 feet high. Above the plinth the building is square, 21 feet 7 inches × 21 feet 7 inches. The arched roof commences at a height of 18 feet, and then tapers to the height of 35 feet, where the gradual diminution of the bulk has been abruptly interrupted by a hip-knob, over which a gold pot and spire are placed. The arch is supported by abutments, each of which is gradually diminished, 1 inch in size, by each successive layer. The arch is an oblong vault, or half of an ellipse, with regular longitudinal furrows and elevations throughout the whole surface. Commencing from each corner at the base project four subordinate buildings 11 feet square, they are so situated that if the sides of the square base of the temple be produced, they will only touch two extremities of each of the buildings. Each of them has a domed roof, supported by six pillars. A hip-knob, pierced by an iron spike, adorns the top. Between these domes there are flat roofs supported by pillars, thus forming a square veranda on each side of the temple, with four domes at the corner, in the midst of which the steeple rises above all with a gilt pot and spire glittering in the sun-shine.

The temple is built of a kind of stone as durable as granite, cemented with lime mortar. The whole building is plastered, but in the course of time the surface has become mouldy"[1].

As a rule, the temple of Samalai faces the north and that of Patneswari temple faces the south. The latter has only a sanctum with a surrounded circular court which serves] as circumambulation path. The outer porch in the Patneswari temple at Patnagarh is a later addition.

But the Samalai temple is more elaborate and spacious. It consists of two structures, the sanctum which enshrines the Goddess and a pillared hall in the front which serves as the audience hall. The peculiarity of this temple is that it has, in addition to the inner sanctum, a covered path of circumambulation round the sanctum.

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[1]Archaeological Survey of India, Vol. XVII—1881-82, Pp. 660

In between the sanctum and the audience hall is an open air court-yard which serves not only as the link of the two structures but also admits light and air into the sanctum.

In case of Samalai temple at Sonepur, are found some architectural deviations as it was built late. Unlike the Samalai temple of Sambalpur, it has no covered path for circumambulation round the sanctum, but there is an outer-sanctum where can be found, images of many Sakta deities. The porch is a hall in front of the outer sanctum, but it is not pillared. The *torana* of the porch has magnificent design and carving and is a beautiful piece of achitecture.

So far as Vimana (Pyramidal roof) is concerned, the Patneswari temple at Patnagarh exhibits the Chalukyan style of architecture while those of the Patneswari temple at Sambalpur, and Samalai temples at Sambalpur and Barpali have affinities with the Khajuraho style with slender shape adorned with miniature temple-motifs.

The image of Patneswari in the temple of Patnagarh is a representation of ten-armed Mahisamardini Durga. The deity holds the different weapons of war, such as the sword and the shield, the bow and the arrow, the thunderbolt and the snake as well as a long trident which pierces the heart of the demon Mahisa, shown as a human figure issuing out of the decapitated body of a buffalo. Such images of Durga are not rare in Orissa and in the Chauhan temples, they are commonly found. They are seen in the outer walls of Siva and Sakta temples as Parsva Devatas. The deity was beautifully sculptured on the eastern Torana of the Samalai temple of Sonepur. In Vaishnava edifices like the Gopalji temples of Sambalpur and Sonepur, she is found as isolated sculptures. The image of Patneswari in the temple of Sambalpur is however, quite different, it being the image of Goddess Kali. A replica of the image in the name of Kali has been enshrined in a small temple inside the old palace of the Zamindar of Barpali.

During Durga Puja the image of Goddess Samalai was being painted to display her different aspects. On new moon day of Aswin, Samalai used to appear in the form of Goddess Ganga and she was being painted white that day in place of scarlet red as on other occasions. A week after that, she was being presented as Vyagrahi Devi with spotted marks all over her limbs

The following story which is extant to day may have bearing on Samalai being painted as a leopard during Dasahara. The story is as follows :

A worshipper had flowers on a plate and was offering prayers to Samalai while his daughter was standing by his side. He found suddenly that the deity had disappeared and looking up found the deity devouring

his daughter. He threw the plate at the face of the deity and it stuck there. According to the story the deity is facing away from the entrance and that is why there is no face.

Whatever the meaning of the above story may be it was obviously meant to frighten children away.

Samalai of Sambalpur town is a shapeless rock made to appear like a face with two gold leaves in the form of eyes. According to Shri Siva Prasad Das in his book ସମ୍ବଲପୁର ଇତିହାସ published in 1952, Samalai is a deity of the "Saharas" (SAVARA) who is worshipped as a Goddess in every village in Sambalpur district along with a Kandha deity and a number of other deities named after natural phenomenon. In fact. all these deities are mere pieces of stone. What they represent is a subject for research. What exists today and has come on for centuries is the institution of "Jhankar" who is a hereditary village servant, remunerated by free-hold land. His sole duty was to worship the village deity. Later some police duties were allowed to him which have now been abolished. Thus Samalai appears to be an unembodied divinity and is widely believed not only in Sambalpur district but in the entire region.

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APPENDIX IV

THE VIKRAMKHOL INSCRIPTION*

(SAMBALPUR DISTRICT)

BY K. P. JAYASWAL, M. A., (OXON.) BARRISTER-AT-LAW

1. Vikramkhol lies within the jurisdiction of Police thana Jharsuguda in the district of Sambalpur, Bihar and Orissa. It is approachable from the small railway station Belpahar on the main line of the Bengal-Nagpur Railway. From Belpahar one has to go four miles south-west to Grindola, and thence another four miles in the same direction to Vikramkhol. The road from Grindola crosses a corner of the Gangpur State. There is a village, Titliabahal, near the rock of Vikramkhol. The inscription is in a natural rock-shelter, six feet below the top. The rock is a rough sandstone. The rock-shelter is 115 feet in length and 27 feet 7 inches in height from the floor. It faces north-east.

2. The inscribed portion is about 35 feet by 7 feet. Some of the letters are sharply cut, but the incision-marks of the majority do not show sharp cutting. It seems that an iron chisel was not used. Some of the letters are partly cut and partly painted, while some letters are only in paint, but the majority are completely cut. It is evident that all the letters were first painted before being incised, which was the method regularly employed in the period of Brahmi inscriptions. The colour of the paint is red-ochre, with which we are familiar in the pre-historic and historic caves and cave-buildings in India. To take a continuous photograph of all the letters (incised and painted) the incised letters have been carefully coloured. I have also had impressions of the incised letters taken by the usual method, and photographs in four parts of the squeeze are reproduced on the accompanying plates, together with the complete view referred to above and sections of the continuous photograph on a larger scale where the letters are very clear. I have also had tracings made of the painted portions. All this material is now in the Patna Museum. The estampages and the tracings have been made by the curator of the Museum, Rai Sahib Manoranjan Ghosh. The photographs have been taken by the Patna Museum staff under the supervision of the curator. The material has been collected under my direction.

3. The inscription was discovered by an educated Sadhu, Swami Jnanananda. Mr. Lochan Prosad Pandey, founder and Secretary of the Mahakosala Society of the Central Provinces, rendered valuable

* Published in "The Indian Antiquary", Vol. LXII, 1933 (P. 58—60)

service by bringing it to our notice. At first I obtained an eye-copy of the letters, and since then scientific copies have been procured for the Patna Museum. I have to thank Mr. Senapati, Deputy Commissioner of Sambalpur, for the material help rendered to us in obtaining these copies.

4. An examination of the letters, which at first sight give the impression of having Brahmi forms, showed that the writing was a mixture of Brahmi forms and a developed type of the Mohenjodaro script. As the announcement of the discovery of the inscription and my opinion thereon has led to numerous inquiries, I hasten to publish the record for study by scholars, along with a few observations of my own, a set out below.

Conclusion

5. The inscription is a writing : this cannot be doubted. My reasons for this conclusion are : -(*i*) The symbols were first carefully painted and then inscribed after the fashion of inscriptions (*ii*) the writing is in regular lines (the lines are not always straight owing partly to the very rough surface on which they are inscribed), (*iii*) the symbols have set forms, which disclose 'writing habits' in the phraseology of handwriting experts. The hand which first painted the letters was used to writing with a pen : this is evident from plate 6.

6. The system knows the *bindu* and also, the *visarga*. Some letters have dots placed below them, while in some cases, dots seem to give a discriminative value to the letters, as in Semitic writing.

7. The right hand corner top line on plate 8, where the same symbol is repeated more than once, may paint to the employment of numerals.

8. There is an animal figure which is probably not a part of the writing, but a symbol. There is, however, one symbol like a bellows placed side-ways, which recurs.

9. The writing seems to me to be from right to left (see, particularly Plate 6).

10. It is evident that some of the letters disclose accentuation. Repetition of the same letter twice probably suggests consonantal duplication or conjuncts.

11. The writing seems to have reached the syllabary (alphabetic) stage.

Comparison with Mohenjodaro scripts

12. The bellows-shaped letter above the animal figure may be compared with the Mohenjodaro letter No. 119 (Vol. II, P. 440). The first letter (right hand) in the top line on Plate 6 should not be compared with Mohenjodaro No. 162, and the system of dots with the same system in series 175 (*ibid*, P. 445).

13. The letter of the shape of the Brahmi 9 may be compared with Mohenjodaro Nos. 100—102, 133, 144, 146 and 148. The shape of Mohenjodaro No. 133 is identical with the eighth letter of the second line in Plate 8.

14. The fourth letter in line 2, Plate 8, may be compared with Mohenjodaro 96 series. A variation of it is found in the seventh, or bottom line at Vikramkhol.

15. The X-shape of Vikramkhol should be compared with Nos. 98-99 of Mohenjodaro.

16. The circle-letter like the Brahmi *th*, and the oval letters are noteworthy. They seem to be consonants on account of their repetition in one place. In plate 7, the third letter after the animal (reading from left to right) is accentuated. It occurs in plate 8 with two dots inside, resembling the Brahmi *tha*. These shapes may be compared with Nos. 224 and 219 of Mohenjodaro. The form at Mohenjodaro is always oval.

17. The Y-shaped letter has a Kharosthi look, and so have a few more forms. But, on the whole, the theory of a proto-Kharosthi script is excluded, unless we assume that Brahmi and Kharosthi had a common parentage.

18. I regret that I have not got sufficient time at my disposal at present to dive deeply into the matter and propose any reading. I present the problem for the consideration of scholars engaged in this field of study.

19. It seems that the theory I put forward in 1920 (JBORS, Vol. VI, P. 188ff), that Brahmi is an indigenous Indian writing, receives confirmation from this find, for its letters are nearer Brahmi

than any other script. In that paper I also pointed out a very probable connection between Brahmi and the writing on the Harappa seals[1].

The Vikramkhol inscription supplies a link between the passage of letter forms from the Mohenjodaro script to Brahmi. The Vikramkhol record, however, need not necessarily be an Aryan piace of writing[2].

Age of the inscription

20. Now, what would be the approximate age of the Vikramkhol incription? The writing is certainly earlier than the earliest specimen of Brahmi known so far, and Brahmi was completed before 1500 B. C.[3]. We would be within the range of a fair approximation in dating it about 1500 B. C.

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1. "There is the cairn writing in the south but in the north, there is a vast gap between 1500 B. C. and the sixth century B. C. to be filled up by positive evidence. A link seems to be found in the Harappa seals, one of which was published by Cunningham, who maintained that it contained the origin of Brahmi. Two more seals in the same characters were published by the late Dr. Fleet (JRAS, 1912). The readings of two of these seal legends have been suggested by Cunningham and Fleet (JRAS, P. 699) and of the third one by me. (IA, 1913, P. 203,). It seems to me that it is possible to solve them in the near future, especially with our increasing knowledge of pre-Mauryan letters and with an increased number of Harappa seals. Sir John Marshall has got a few more of these seals which he has kindly promised to lend me for study. Letters from the photograph of two of them are reproduced in the chart with the permission of Sir John. Three things are certain about these seals. One of the legends ('C') of Fleet shows that it was intended to be read from lef to right as the legend, does not cover the whole space, and its beginning and end are distinguishable. The script has the Hindu system of using abbreviated forms of letters, for one letter which appears in full in one seal ('A') of Fleet, appears as abbreviated, either as a *matra* or as a conjoint consonant in two places (in 'A' and 'B'). Then there is a legature where V is joined to Y or some other letter. That the characters are not a syllabary is seen by the addition on the head of one letter (in 'C') which appears without it in another place ('A'). The addition is evidently a *matra* probably an *a* in a stage when it is fully represented, it is separate from the letter on the top which it is placed. The characteristics therefore seem to be those of the Brahmi, but the letters are so old that they are not yet fully recognised. In the new seals we have a letter which is almost unmistakably *a* and the form is such that the oldest Semitic and Brahmi forms for *a* are derivable from it (the whole legend I tentatively read as Abhayah ....)"—JBORS, VI, (1920), PP. 199-200.
2. The locality, according to the Puranic race-history would suggest the record to be a pre-Dravidian 'Raksasa', record. Raksasa is the generic name for the race dispossessed by the Aryans. They extended upto the Indian Archipelago, (Naga was probably a subdivision of theirs). The Gonds are their remnants.
3. I have set forth in some detail my reasons for coming to this conclusion in JBORS., Vol. VI (1920), P. 198 to which reference is invited.

PLATES





Pre-historic inscription at Vikramkhol



Gangadhar Meher (1862—1924)



Statue of Padmasambhava brought from Lhasa and installed at Institute of Tibetology, Kalimpong in 1952



Raja Sir Basudeb Sudhal Dev of Bamra



An artistic building of ex-Ruler of Bamra at Deogarh



Raja Bhanuganga Tribhuvan Deb
(Last Ruling Chief of Bamra)



Raja Vira Chandra Jadumani Deo Jenamani
(Last Ruling Chief of Rairakhol)



Goddess Samalai (Sambalpur)

(Courtesy Sahu Photo Studio, Bargarh)



Samalai temple

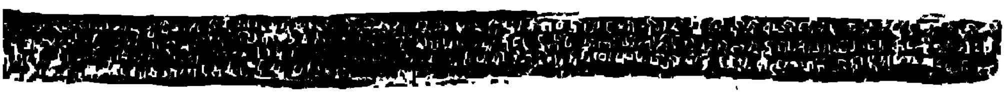
Photo—I. A D. P., Sambalpur)



of Vaijal Dev at Narsinghnath
l by Dr. Nabin Kumar Sahu in 1964)



Statue of Vaijal Dev at Narsinghnath
(Discovered by Dr. G. R. Bhandarkar in 1904)



Inscription of Vaijal Dev at Narsinghnath temple



lady in Sambalpuri saree (Bichitrapuri design) wearing old traditional bangles and armlets
Courtesy— Home (P.R.) Department



An American lady wearing Sambalpuri saree
Nakshatramala design
Photo— Dreamland, Bhubaneswar



Dalkhai Dance
Photo— Home (P. R.) Department



Daughter of a farming family with Sambalpuri hair style
Courtesy—I. A. D. P., Sambalpur



Daughter of a farming family with paddy seedlings in the Package Programme area.
Courtesy— Directorate of Agriculture



"Swarna" Jowar plant from Package Programme area





Ground nut from Package Programme area





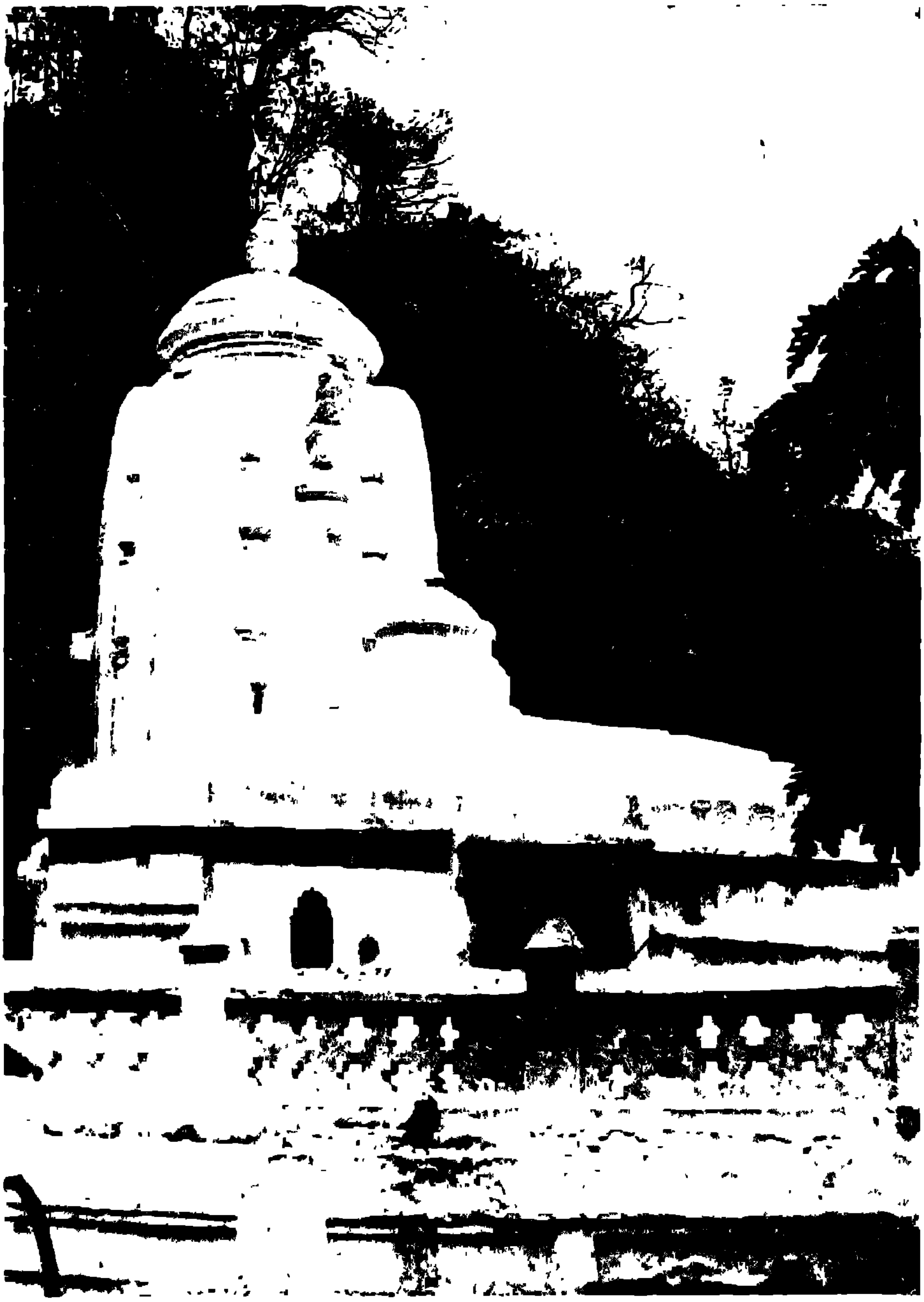
Metre-Gauge Railway line through Barapahar (Dungri to Bargarh)
Courtesy Hira Cement Factory, Bargarh



Dungri lime-stone quarry
Courtesy—Hira Cement Factory, Bargarh



" Lost Feeling of Space "
(A view of Sambalpur town)

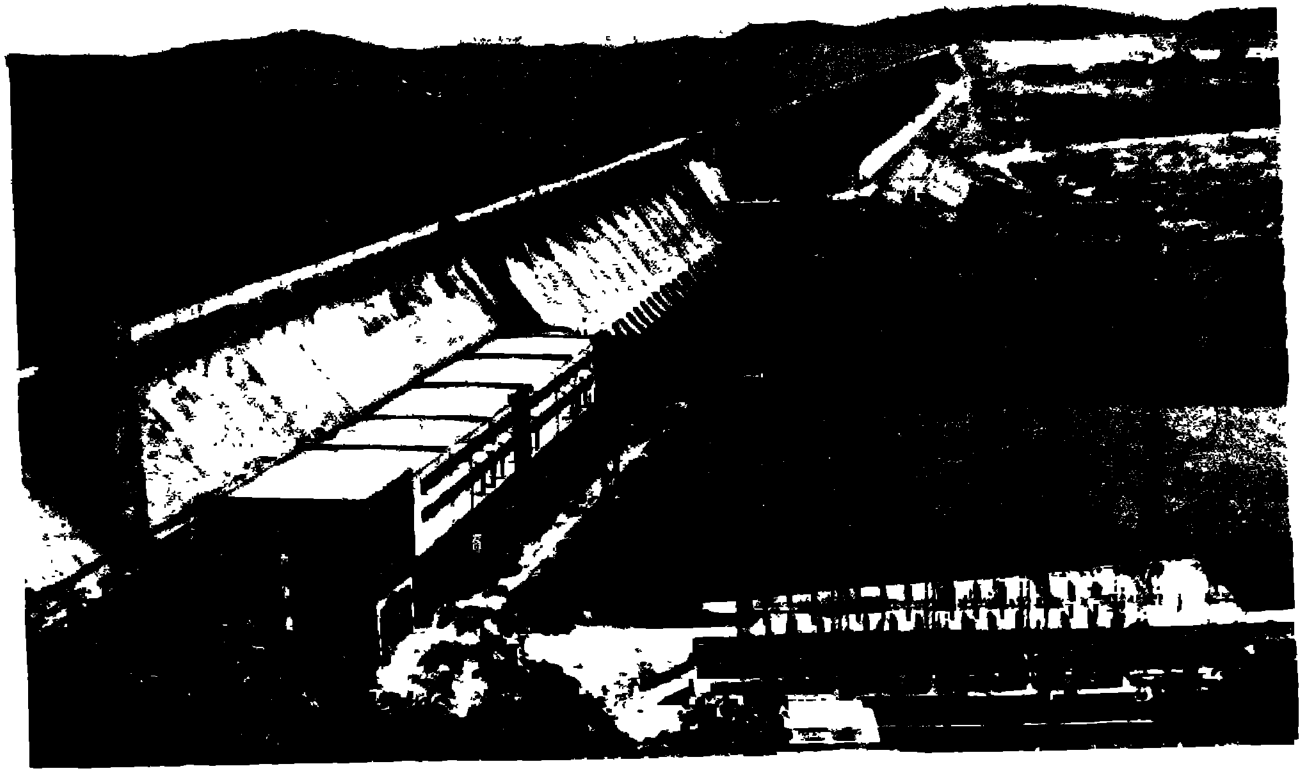


Narsinghnath temple

Courtesy Home (P. R.) Department



Water falls at Narsinghnath



Hirakud Dam

Photo - Home (P R) Department

GLOSSARY

Diacritical notations

आ = ā	ठ = ṭh
ई = ī	ड = ḍ
ऊ = ū	ढ = ḍh
ऋ = ṛ	ण = ṅ
ओ = ō	श = ś
ङ = ṇ	ष = ṣ
ट = ṭ	अनुस्वार = ṁ

GLOSSARY

Adālat Panchāyat	.. A village court of law under Pan chayat system.
Anābadi	.. Uncultivated land
Asāḍh	.. Indian month corresponding to June-July.
At land	.. High lying land
Bahal land	.. A low lying land
Bāhuḍā Jātrā	.. The return car festival of a god
Bālbhog	.. Offering of food (other than cooked rice) to a god.
Beherā	.. A village headman
Berna land	.. Land occurring towards bottom of a depression.
Bhādrav	.. Indian month corresponding to August-September.
Bhāt	.. Boiled rice
Bhogamanḍapa	.. Hall of a temple where offerings (Bhoga) are placed.
Bhoodān	.. Land gift
Bhuliā	.. Cotton weaver
Chasā	.. A cultivator
Chāṭaśāli	.. A village school
Chaukidār (Chowkidar)	.. A village police
Chaupadi/Chhānda	.. A kind of metre in which a song or poetry is composed.
Ḍālua Paddy	.. A variety of paddy grown in summer.
Daśaharā	.. A festival when goddess Durga is worshipped. Falls usually in October.
Dayābhāg	.. A Hindu law of succession by which females inherit property.
Ḍerāghar	.. A village rest house for visitors

Dewān	..	The chief executive officer in an ex-feudatory State.
Dharsā	..	A village dust road
Gādi	..	Throne
Ginā	..	A cup made of brass or bell-metal
Goshālā	..	Cattle shelter
Gotra	..	Lineage
Gountiā (Gaontia)	..	A village headman
Grāma	..	A village
Grāmdān	..	Village gift
Guḍḍākhu	..	A tooth paste made of tobacco
Gur	..	Un-refined sugar
Haliā	..	A labourer who does the ploughing
Jhānkar	..	A village officer whose duty is to worship village deity.
Khadi	..	A coarse cloth woven of hand-spun yarn.
Khālsā	..	A land or village held directly from Government.
Khariff	..	A crop reason (summer-autumn)
Kosthā	..	A Tusser (Cocoon-silk) weaver
Loṭā	..	A water container/carrier made of brass or bell-metal.
Mahajān	..	Money lender
Makaddam	..	A village headman
Māl Land	..	Upland
Mālguzāri	..	Wage labour
Manḍala	..	Denotes an area/jurisdiction, e. g. a district, division.
Mantra	..	Incantations
Maṭha	..	A Hindu monastery
Māufi	..	Free hold
Māufidār	..	Holder of Maufi
Mitakshara	..	Hindu law of succession by which sons inherit property jointly with father.

Mohana (Jagamohana)	..	The vestibule of a temple
"Na-Aṅka"	..	A great famine that befell Orissa in 1866. It is so named for it occurred in the ninth regnal year of the then Raja of Puri.
Nāṭamaṇḍap	..	Dancing hall of a temple
Navakalebara	..	The great festival of Lord Jagannath (Puri) when His metamorphosis takes place. It usually occurs at an interval of 19 years.
Nazarānā	..	A levy made by one (overlord generally) as a courtesy tribute.
Nullāh (Nalla)	..	Small stream or channel
Pakhāl	..	Boiled rice soaked in cold water
Panchāyat	..	A body of local self-Government at village level.
Pāthaśālā	..	A village school
Paṭwāri	..	A village revenue officer who collects land revenue and maintains village records.
Rabi	..	A crop season (autumn-spring)
Rayat (Raiyat, Ryot)	..	A tenant
Rasad	..	Obligatory supply of provisions from people during a Raja's or his officers' tours.
Sadābrata	..	A kind of endowment for feeding pilgrims, monks, way-farers, etc.
Sādhu	..	A sage
Sāhukār	..	A merchant
Sanad	..	A treaty or agreement
Sarāi	..	A rest house

Sāson	..	Brahmin settlements in a village received as rent-free grants from kings.
Satee	..	Self-immolation of a woman on her husband's death.
Sebundi	..	Native militia
Seṇā (ସେଣା)	..	Baskets used to lift water for irrigation.
Śrāvaṇa	..	An Indian month corresponding to July-August.
Stambha	..	A pillar
Sudra	..	One of the four castes as propounded in the Veda, viz., Brahmana, Kshetriya, Vaisya and Sudra Sudra represents the inferior caste.
Taccavi loans	..	A loan given as a relief measure for carrying on agricultural operations.
Tahsil	..	A unit of land revenue administration.
Tākoli	..	A tribute
Teṇḍā	..	A water lift
Thān (ଥାନ)	..	A lineal measurement of cloth
Ticcā	..	A vermilion or sandal paste mark on forehead.
Tol	..	A school for teaching of Sanskrit
Upanayana	..	Sacred thread-wearing ceremony
Vihāra	..	A Buddhist monastery
Vimāna	..	The sanctum of a temple
Wāzib-ul-urz	.	A village revenue administration record.
Zamindār	.	A land-lord

INDEX

(GENERAL AND PLACE NAMES)

Abbreviations used :—

(A) for animals, (B) for birds, (H) for hills, (R) for river, (Rep.) for reptiles and (T) for trees and plants.

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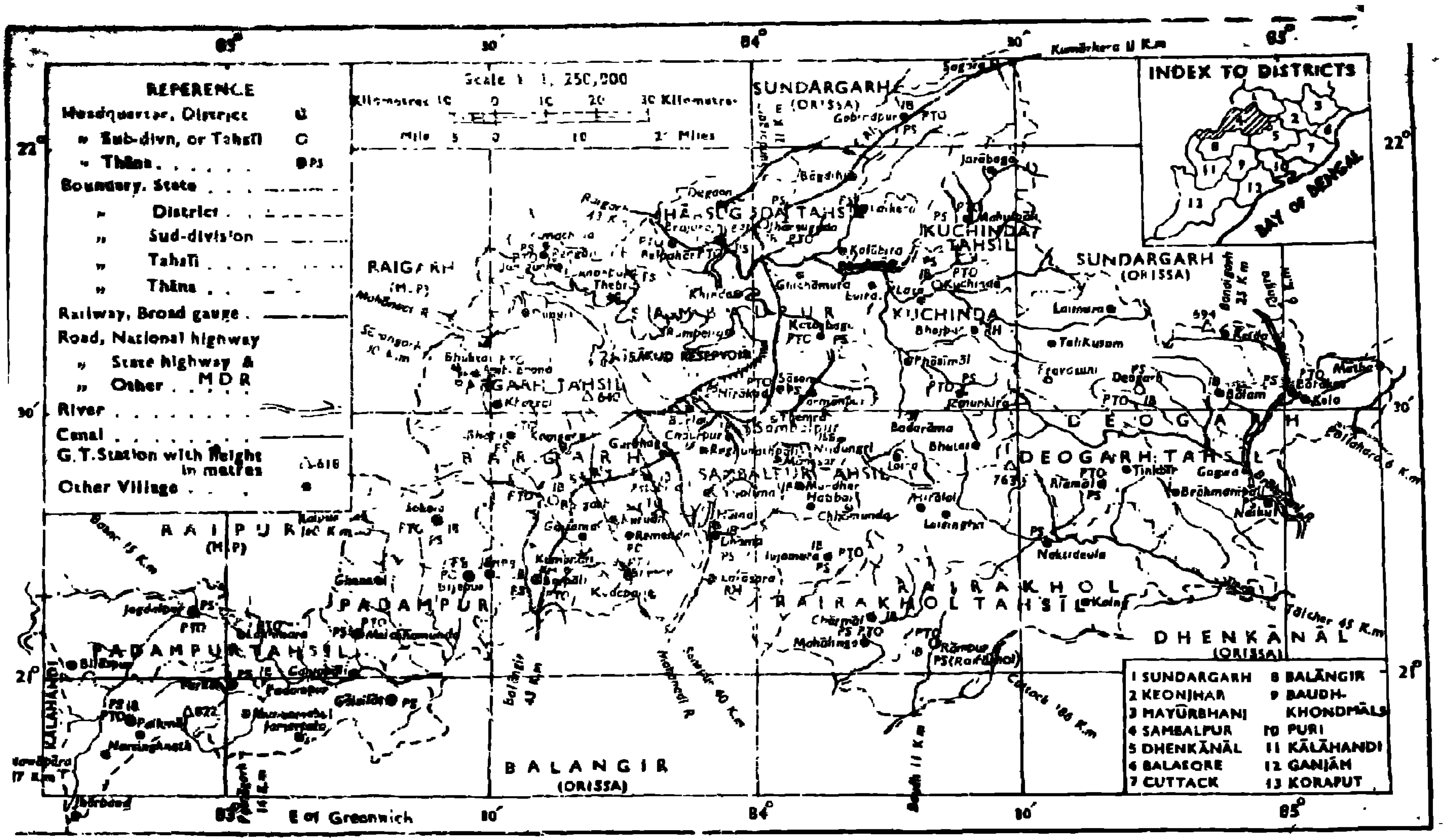
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OGP—MP-Mono Correcting (Revenue) 4—2,990—23-11-1971



REFERENCE
Headquarter, District
" Sub-divn, or Tahsil
" Thāna
Boundary, State
" District
" Sub-division
" Tahsil
" Thāna
Railway, Broad gauge
Road, National highway
" State highway & MDR
" Other
River
Canal
G.T. Station with height in metres
Other Village
Scale 1 : 250,000
Kilometres 10 0 10 20 30 Kilometres
Miles 5 0 10 20 Miles
INDEX TO DISTRICTS
BAY OF BENGAL
1 SUNDARGARH
2 KEONJHAR
3 MAYŪRBHANJ
4 SAMBALPUR
5 DHENKĀNĀL
6 BALASORE
7 CUTTACK
8 BALĀNGIR
9 BAUDH-KHONDMĀLS
10 PURI
11 KĀLĀHANDI
12 GANJĀM
13 KORAPUT
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RAIGARH (M.P.)
RAIPUR (M.P.)
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HIRĀKUD RESERVOIR
KUCHINDA TAHSIL
KUCHINDA
SAMBALPUR
SAMBALPUR TAHSIL
BARGARH
BARGARH TAHSIL
PADAMPUR
PADAMPUR TAHSIL
RAIRAKHOL
RAIRAKHOL TAHSIL
DEOGARH
DEOGARH TAHSIL
Mahānadi R
E of Greenwich